

UNIVERSITY OF NATAL

(PMB)

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

THE SKILLS-BASED APPROACH
TO HISTORY TEACHING :

PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS IN
SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Dissertation in fulfilment of 50% of the Master of Education (Curriculum Development)
degree

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NOVEMBER 1995

(ii)

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I declare that this dissertation titled "**The Skills-based Approach to History Teaching : Perceptions of Teachers in Selected Secondary Schools**" is my own work, and that all sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Sibusiso Nkosinathi Patrick Sishi

SIGNATURE: 

Pinetown
November 1995

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The writer wishes to record his indebtedness to the following people, who directly and/or indirectly contributed to this work:

1. Volker Wedekind, the study supervisor, for his scholarly, friendly and highly professional guidance.
2. Dr J. Mathews, for his advice on relevant sources and the structuring of certain aspects of the Chapters in this dissertation.
3. Professor K.L. Harley, for his interest and valuable comments at the initial and crucial stages of this study.
4. Miss Jean Dyson, for the computerisation of the initial draft document.
5. Thembi, my wife; Gladys, my mother; Wandile, Philani and Bongeka, my two sons and daughter; for their love and support.
6. Umlazi North and South high school principals and history teachers for allowing me to conduct research in their schools and returning answered questionnaires timeously.
7. My colleagues at Ekwazini high school, for ensuring that my engagement in this study did not deprive my pupils of teacher quality attention and support.
8. Stan Mbhense and Mpost Zuma, the "O'Jays"; for their encouragement and motivation throughout this study.

DEDICATION

In memory of my late father **Ambrose Thandabantu ka Nkonka ka Mandlakazi ka Ngini Sishi**, who struggled despite ill-health to provide for family education and left us a priceless wealth of spiritual and social values that we are proud to pass on to the next generations of the Nzimases.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

The following are the most frequently used abbreviations in the study :

ANC	-	African National Congress
ANCYL	-	African National Congress Youth League
APEK	-	Association of Professional Educators of KwaZulu-Natal
AZAPO	-	Azanian Peoples Organisation
BCM	-	Black Consciousness Movement
CED	-	Cape Education Department
CHE	-	Committee for Heads of
CHED	-	Committee for Heads of Education Departments
CNE	-	Christian National Education
COSATU	-	Congress of South African Trade Unions
COSAS	-	Congress of South African Students
CORDTEK	-	Committee of Rectors and Deans of Teacher Education in KwaZulu-Natal
DET	-	Department of Education and Training
ELC	-	Education Liason Committees
FP	-	Fundamental Pedagogics
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
HOD	-	House of Delegates
HOR	-	House of Representatives
IFP	-	Inkatha Freedom Party
KZDEC	-	ex-KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture
KZDEC	-	Kwazulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture .
KZNED	-	KwaZulu-Natal Education Department
NATU	-	Natal African Teachers' Union
NECC	-	National Education Co-ordinating Committee
NED	-	Natal Education Department
NOU	-	Natalse Onderwysers Unie
OFSED	-	Orange Free State Education Department
PAC	-	Pan Africanist Congress of Azania
PE	-	Peoples' Education
PTG	-	Project Task Group
PTSA	-	Parent Teacher Students' Association
RDP	-	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SACE	-	South African Council of Education
SADTU	-	South African Democratic Teachers' Union
SBA	-	Skills-based Approach
SABC	-	South African Broadcasting Corporation
SADF	-	South African Defence Force
SCHP	-	Schools Council History Project 13-16
SCISA	-	Science Curriculum Initiatives in South Africa
TED	-	Transvaal Education Department

ABSTRACT

In the light of the decision by the ad hoc Provincial History Subject Committee of the KwaZulu-Natal Education Department to implement the skills-based approach to history teaching in 1995 (which by November 1995 had not materialised) and to plan that the 1996 common national matriculation examination be skills-oriented, this study examines the preparedness and level of awareness of history teachers, in selected secondary schools, about the implications of introducing such an approach. Dominant trends in history teaching in South Africa are described and the consequences of a radical shift in teaching methodology are examined. Teachers from selected schools in Umlazi answered structured open ended questionnaires. The purpose of the empirical research was to establish if the key role players in the implementation of the skills-based approach, the teachers, are ready for the challenge. They were asked questions based on their own history teaching practices, their concerns, how they envisaged the new history curriculum, and how they teach historical skills, if at all. The results were analyzed to establish whether teachers are ready to deal with the past imbalances of the education provisions in their schools along with attempts to learn and practise the new history teaching approach and unlearn the old teacher and subject centred approaches.

The study discovered that teachers still largely prefer content-based teaching methods and that the external assessment of the standard 10 candidates dominates their teaching methodology. Their attitude towards the teaching of historical skills is favourable but they do not practice this in their own teaching. Attention is drawn to the contradiction that exists between the stated aims of the history syllabus which mentions the teaching of skills, attitudes and content, and the external examination of factual content.

The study results suggest that immediate implementation of the skills-based approach will be problematic and makes a number of recommendations.

INTRODUCTION OF THE STUDY

This study argues that the introduction of the skills-based approach in South Africa was an inevitable consequence of international trends, political pressure for change in education, and the contributions of influential advocates of this approach and policy makers.

However the inevitability of the introduction of the approach misses questions of readiness of teachers to implement this approach. A radical shift from a content-based teaching methodology to a skills-based approach could be counter-productive if it is not accompanied by content changes, the provision of new materials, relevant assessment strategies and preparation of teachers in initial teacher-training institutions and those already in the field of history teaching who were trained in another paradigm. In addition pupil learning styles have to be adapted to the new history teaching methodology.

In the light of the issues raised above, this study will seek to find out what teachers presently do, what they know about the skills-based approach, and what their concerns are about history teaching, the syllabus, assessment techniques, current methodology and what they wish to contribute to the curriculum development of the history subject.

Analysis of the responses to the questions will indicate whether the skills-based approach is the idealistic vision of "experts", which starts with assumptions about what history should be, without due considerations of realities of implementation in practical and specific teaching conditions. Finally the readiness of teachers to teach through the medium of the skills-based approach needs to be assessed.

Chapter One focuses on history teaching in South Africa. A brief historical background of education in South Africa, the content-based teaching methods in use and the assumptions underpinning the school subject will be examined.

Chapter Two begins by pointing to indications that the skills-based approach will be introduced in South Africa. These include the international trends which question the notion

of history as truth, the local resistance to the use of history as propaganda, and the increasing belief that education should be skills-oriented rather than content-centred.

In Chapter Three the consequences of the implementation of the approach are examined. This includes the issue of the availability of resources as well as teachers' readiness to implement the approach in the light of the context in which they were trained to teach history.

Chapter Four describes conditions of teaching in Umlazi, while Chapter Five gives the research methodology and findings of the empirical research, Chapter Six analyses the data, and the concluding recommendations are outlined in Chapter Seven.

CHAPTER ONE

HISTORY TEACHING IN SOUTH AFRICA

1.1 Historical Background of Education in South Africa.

This sub-section discusses the key socio-political issues related to education in South Africa, from the colonial era until the interim period, following the first democratic and non-racial general election on 27 April 1994. It provides a context in order to discuss educational policy changes and current trends in teaching methodology. It focuses on political decisions and legislation that resulted in political and educational crises (for example the 1976 Soweto uprising) giving a background to the nature of educational problems that policy makers are presently dealing with. Finally teacher qualifications and general working conditions that might hinder efforts to implement new curricular proposals and decisions are examined.

Education provision in South Africa is interwoven with the political and racial segregation which predated the apartheid era. The National Education Department, constituted in the 1993 Interim Constitution, has to deal with the consequences of racial segregation dating back to the colonial period. In Natal the local settlers under the colonial government had a vision of social control which they helped to achieve through the spread of western civilization, which in practice involved the incorporation of indigenous peoples into the values of the dominant culture, coinciding with the idea of open schools and a common curriculum (Harley, 1992:29). As the local settlers gained more political power from the colonial government, the mode of social control shifted to segregation which coincided with the idea of segregated schools and a racially differentiated curriculum. Education was manipulated to achieve socio-political control of the indigenous people by local settlers (Harley, 1992:29).

Between 1910 and 1948, a period which was dominated by the premiership of Louis Botha, Jan Smuts and J. B. M. Hertzog, policies were based on segregation and trusteeship and that did not drastically change the status quo of education before 1910 (Christie, 1985:50-53). Up

to 1948 black education fell under the white minister of Native Affairs. In his campaign for the 1948 elections and when he became the Prime Minister in 1948, Malan proclaimed the new policy of apartheid as the panacea for all South Africa's racial problems. This was evident in the manner in which the state crushed the Defiance Campaign against the pass laws in 1952. Resistance by blacks and the intensity of state violence climaxed with the killing of more than 69 demonstrators in the Sharpeville Massacre, in which 20 000 people were arrested and many black political activists left the country (Christie, 1985:50-53). In 1953 the Bantu Education Act was passed and all schools for blacks had to register with the government. Many mission schools had to close down as they refused to register. Separate tribal colleges for black university students were set up (ibid).

Oakes argued that the Soweto riots of 1976 were a turning point in the history of South Africa. It encouraged many students to join a fight against apartheid ¹. It characterised the end of twenty years of black inactivity since the Defiance Campaign in 1952. It gave rise to a generation of black consciousness inspired activists determined to fight and forced the government to look beyond brute force to safeguard what it saw as the right of whites to self-determination. The source of this uprising was a directive from the Bantu Education Department that Afrikaans had to be used on an equal basis with English as one of the languages of instruction (1988,442). The Soweto riot questioned the values of the education

¹ Siphwe, a student at a time of the Soweto uprising said that:

The thing that made me politically minded was the influence I got from 1976, because so many of our brothers and sisters were shot dead for their rights. In fact June 16 was the day I started to have interest in political activity in this country (Price, 1992:29)

Another student Jabulani said that:

It was the 1976 experience that made us to start ask questions about the poverty of our people, we started questioning why whites live that type of life and we live in these conditions, and we began to realise also that our whole education system was a very big lie. Because it's a system that tells you that certain people must be rich and others must be poor, and if people are poor, it must be their own fault. These are the values that our education system teaches us, and in 1976 we started to question those values (ibid).

system in South Africa (Price, 1992:29), and the schools were argued to be institutionalising the interest of the dominant class, through its modes of knowing, speaking and learning reflecting the culture of the dominant social class (Giroux cited in King and Van Der Berg, 1991:2). The state's response was the enacting of the 1979 Education and Training Act which replaced the Bantu Education Act, however the quality of education received by blacks remained largely the same. By 1980 school boycotts had spread to other black townships and the standard of education received by blacks deteriorated further when effective teaching ceased to exist (Christie, 1985:53).

In 1983, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act was passed and separate legislative bodies for whites, Indians and coloureds were established. This was an indication of the unsubstantial nature of the reform. In terms of the 1983 Constitution, the General Education Affairs Act of 1984, was passed providing for the control of education in the Republic in respect of among other aspects the "norms and standards for syllabus and examinations and for certification of qualifications" (King and van der Berg, 1991:2-4). Matters related to policy decisions were considered as "general affairs" and these were directly controlled by the white National Ministry of Education. Minor educational issues related to race and ethnicity were left under the control of the House of Delegates (HOD) for Indians, House of Representatives (HOR) for coloureds and the Department of Education and Training (DET) and Homeland Education Departments for blacks. The education issues related to these cultural, ethnic and racial groups were considered as "own affairs". The Act established the South African Council of Education (SACE) and the Committee for Heads of Education Departments (CHED) to advise the minister of education. The Committee for Heads of Education (CHE), representing white provincial education departments, was given the task of orchestrating curriculum development procedures via a network of syllabus committees. Therefore all the syllabuses used by the various other education departments like the HOD, HOR, DET, and the homeland government departments were revised by white Provincial Education departments (King and Van Der Berg, 1991:2-4). Despite the rhetoric of separate but equal "own affairs" and self-government, ultimate control rested with the white education departments.

Following the first non-racist general elections in South Africa (on 27 April 1994), nine provincial education departments under one National Education Department for all South Africans were established. The new Department of Education and the National Education and Training Forum invited recommendations for essential changes in school syllabuses (Bhengu, 1994:4).

Among other areas of concern that the new department of education had identified is "a pedagogical approach which fails to develop the creative talent for our people, and engenders an authoritarian education paradigm" (Bhengu, 1994:1). This study confines itself within this area, specifically within the parameters of history teaching.

In addition to historical factors discussed above the following backlogs and past imbalances in teacher qualifications, salaries, and state funding are essential to understanding the state of education in South Africa today. Black teachers teach 78,1% of all pupils in South Africa and these pupils are the most disadvantaged educationally. 52% of all Black teachers are underqualified (less than standard 10 and a 3 year teachers certificate) compared to 45% coloured and 2% Indian and 0% White underqualified teachers (Hofmeyer and Buckland, 1992:22). In 1992 in the former KwaZulu Department of Education there were 36266 teachers, 5692 of them had no more than standard 8 certificates, only 15763 had matric certificates and 2555 had university degrees (KZDEC, 1992:59)(see table 1.1). This means that 24010 (6,5 per cent) teachers were not qualified to teach in the former KZDEC.

TABLE 1.1 Unqualified KZDEC Teachers in 1992

Number of Teachers	Teacher Qualifications	Teachers without any professional certificates
362666	Total number of teachers	100%
2555	With university degrees only	0,7%
15763	With matric certificates only	4,3%
5692	With up to standard 8 certificates only	1,5%

(KZDEC, Annual Report, 1992)

Table 1.2 that follows indicate that the DET rate of black underqualified teachers was 52%. The table also indicates the difficulties under which black teachers operated in terms of pupil-teacher ratio which was 38:1 as against 17:1, 20:1 and 23:1 respectively for white, Indian and coloured education.

TABLE 1.2 The DET, White, Indian and Coloured Rate of Underqualified Teachers

	white education	Indian education	coloured education	black education
1.	17:1	20:1	23:1	38:1
2.	0	2	45	52
3.	3 082,00	2 227,01	1 359,76	764,73
4.	96	93	72.7	40.7

(DET, 1989:216; Du Plessis et al, 1990; SAIRR, 1990:795 cited in Hofmeyer and Buckland, 1992:22)

1 - Pupil-teacher ratios

2 - under-qualified teachers (less than M+3). (Percentage)

3 - Per capita expenditure including capital expenditure. (in rand)

4 - Standard 10 pass rate. (percentage)

By 1989 there were 475 000 farm school pupils who comprised of 26,6% of all DET pupils excluding those from former Homelands. In 1988 31% of the DET school teachers were teaching in farm schools (Graaf and Gordon, 1992:208). School buildings were poorly constructed, badly maintained and inadequate of the number of school going children. Farm school teachers operated under stressful conditions as 58% of the farm schools had pupil teacher ratio of greater than 40:1. Men and women school teachers were paid R294 p.a. irrespective of their qualifications. Per capita expenditure on white children in 1988 was R2 700, for DET it was R560, and for farm children R280, one tenth of the white figure (Graaf and Gordon, 1992:218).

1.2 Historical Knowledge and Facts Taught as Truth.

Before examining the existing practices in history teaching in South Africa, it was necessary to briefly explicate the philosophy of history which underpins or informs these practices. In the nineteenth century historians believed that it was "possible, by examining the evidence of the past to arrive at historical truth" (Mathews *et al*, 1992:3). The history syllabus in South Africa was argued to be flowing out of this nineteenth century belief that "there are basic facts which historians all accept as true and these facts comprise the basis of history" (Esterhuizen, Gunning and Mocke, 1988:2).

An alternative view was that "History is not what happened in the past but an interpretation of what occurred" (Mathews *et al*, 1992:3). Many teachers taught facts from prescribed books as if these were true. The education departments were assessing history pupils to establish how many facts they know. These trends were influencing pupils' learning styles. Many pupils read facts uncritically and accepted them as if they were true and cannot possibly change. Historians placed facts in particular contexts, and dates, treaties, written and printed documents, private letters and diaries are integrated by historians into accounts that reflected their personal backgrounds and were interpreted in specific contexts. Thus, if pupils read the history books as documents full of true facts, they will not be stimulated to investigate the processes and personalities who recorded them (Jones, 1973:166).

Continued use of the factual approach resulted in facts to be considered as true and accurate accounts, which mislead pupils to think that whatever historical information they saw in books had to be "retained, assimilated and memorized" (Vrey, 1979:317) into their heads and that, that information could not be questioned.

Historical facts are not isolated from others, if it was taken into consideration that some facts were in books and others were not recorded but they were hidden in uncovered primary sources, secondary sources, and in other forms of evidence. It could be argued that those facts that were in school and library books were not an end in themselves. They were subject to further enquiries and research. Teaching facts as true accounts was misleading. Jones argue that:

Historical knowledge involves recognition of historical terminology, of relationships such as cause and effect and of the existence of differing and conflicting interpretations of events (1973:166).

Different historians would interpret the same evidence differently. This did not mean that historical knowledge was not useful. "Knowledge implies accuracy and discipline" (Deurchar, 1992:6). But the argument against this belief was centred on the premise that knowledge available should be interpreted in consideration of possibilities that some evidence was not yet uncovered, and its discovery could lead to a completely divergent view to that which was held. Deuchar argues that the object of history teaching was to "pass on the essence of our civilization to our children" (1992:14). This view indicated that the available historical knowledge should be passed on to the young ones as the truth because that was important to our civilisation. It referred to certain available information as the "basic facts". These were supposed to be considered true and should be taught as such. However some current views argue that there was a difference between the basic facts and accepted judgements which were often labelled as the facts. The factual approach to history teaching was dominant in South Africa (Mathews *et al*, 1992:3).

The KwaZulu-Natal Education Department (KZNED) through its ad hoc Provincial History Committee has identified the need for history pupils to be equipped with skills to

investigate the evidence. This committee has advocated that the teaching of skills to investigate evidence would empower pupils to enquire the historical evidence on their own, and they saw this approach as an alternative to the factual approach to history teaching. Knowledge of historical content was important, its "basic platform is a requirement for making sense of history and for providing a framework within which students can demonstrate their mastery of skills" (Jones, 1973:165). There was a need for balance between content and skills. Despite the acceptance of the view that historical facts were personal accounts, those accounts were nevertheless important and were even more useful if they were considered as springboards from which historians would move closer to accumulating more evidence, from which better historical judgements and interpretations would be made.

1.3 Content-Based Teaching Methods in Use.

1.3.1 Introduction

This sub-section focuses on methods of history teaching largely encouraged by teacher education institutions in South Africa. These methods include the question and answer, text book and narrative methods which are dominant in history teaching in South Africa. The Fundamental Pedagogics (FP) theory, underpinning history didactics in most teacher education institutions, is examined in terms of its impact on prospective and experienced teachers already in the field of teaching.*

1.3.2 Theoretical Underpinnings of the Dominant History Teaching Methods

A large variety of post-matric teacher education institutions which include Afrikaans medium universities, former black universities and Colleges of Education which have been and still are responsible for the initial and in-service education of a large majority of teachers, based their teaching programmes on the theory of FP.

This theoretical perspective strongly emphasized the leading role of the teacher who passed on a cumulative body of knowledge which contained the culture of the people. The theory maintained that:

The child will clearly not become the complete adult he is meant to be unless he receives effective help from an adult, on his own the child cannot actualise his potential so as to become an independent, responsible, decent person capable of living a worthwhile life as a human being
(Vrey, 1979:9).

This perspective clearly encouraged teacher-centred approaches to teaching, under the premise that the teacher was an adult and had power and responsibility to lead the child to adulthood. The theory stated that the child "needs the support of an adult who will take the responsibility for his development to adulthood" (Vrey, 1979:201). The child was considered an incomplete being who had to follow what adults or teachers said. This suited teachers teaching in communities whose cultural trends it was, that children were submissive to adults. It also saved many of these teachers from having their weaknesses

exposed to their pupils. Teachers, as adults in these communities were not to be subjected to questions and other challenges from children. Therefore the theory of FP found acceptance because it provided justifications for maintaining pupils' submissive roles and teacher dominance of the classroom environment. The FP perspective of a teaching-learning situation was that :

The child as smallness experiences the bigness of adulthood and on account of this, is willing to accept the authority, trust and knowledge of a person who is bodily speaking his superior
(Killian and Viljoen, 1974:283).

As long as history teachers taught from this pedagogic perspective, they will continue to regard themselves as "superiors", "authorities" and "knowledgibles" of their history pupils, wanting to be "trusted" and "accepted". And as long as such teachers teach, children were to keep quiet and admire their authority and knowledge which was not to be questioned by a "smallness", the child.

The development of the FP in South Africa has been linked to the ideology of Christian National Education (CNE) and the training of black teachers was centred in this Afrikaner philosophy which reinforced their authoritarian classroom culture.

Christian Nationalist advocates have come under attack from liberals, black nationalist, marxists and enlightened Afrikaner academics and Christian National Education (CNE) and FP are criticised for contributing to the reproduction of the dominant ideology and education policies flowing from this ideology
(Enslin cited in Hofmeyer and Buckland, 1992:36).

It is also argued that Christian nationalism propagated notions of:

Separate identity and development of each people or volk and the God-given responsibility of the Afrikaner Volk to spread the gospel to blacks and act as their guardians (Shingler cited in Hofmeyer and Buckland, 1992:35).

The teacher training programmes were largely based on CNE and FP, and that had to change. The trend towards the democratisation of South Africa required:

Radical shifts in the way teacher education institutions conventionally function and to become accountable and responsive to their own students and the broader communities they serve (Sieborger and Kenyon 1992:153).

FP was aimed at legitimizing CNE. That reduced FP, into an ideological practise. It is not a science. FP did not encourage "criticism of the dominant ideology" (Enslin, 1984:144) and, unlike English medium universities, FP did not draw on Marxist and Liberal traditions (Enslin, 1984:144).

Institutions which practised FP reproduced the CNE through the following practices:

Students of education are provided by means of syllabuses, prescribed readings and examinations in Fundamental Pedagogics with the ideology which suits the roles which they will have to fulfil as teachers, bureaucrats and professional ideologists. The nature of research conducted in the institutions in question is determined by the ideology of CNE and by the role of FP in the reproduction of this ideology. Such research, which excludes issues and analysis which might threaten the official ideology can at best make only a limited contribution to issues of theoretical relevance to education. The structuring and staffing of departments of education is determined by the structuring of Pedagogics into part-disciplines which reflect, of course, the epistemological presuppositions of Fundamental Pedagogics (Enslin, 1984:145).

This clearly revealed the need for teachers in both teacher education institutions and in the teaching field to be developed and rely on their own resourcefulness because the theory they have passed during their training gave them certificates to perform in the old order. New times required a revolution of their teaching strategies. If a new history teaching approach were to be implemented in the new South Africa, "apartheid educated educators" (Walker, 1990:62), must be retrained and equipped with skills necessary to empower pupils to investigate historical evidence on their own.

The following sub-section discuss some specific history teaching methods who draw on the theory of FP, and as such were vehicles for teacher dominance of the history teaching and learning situation. FP-oriented teacher education programmes in South Africa encouraged the use of these methods which include the question and answer, the textbook, and the narrative methods.

1.3.3 Question and Answer Method

The question and answer method was one of the most dominant teaching methods encouraged by teacher-education institutions. This method was largely used by the teachers to test how much factual information had been memorised. Answers were provided to add factual gaps in the minds of pupils. If this method was used to teach content, it promoted memorisation of facts and passivity of pupils whose only role became that of giving "correct" answers that the teacher approved. This method was centred on recall questions (Garvey and Krug, 1977:45).

Closed questions that required only one answer, were dominant. It was on very rare occasions that productive questions that encouraged children to go beyond the given facts which stimulated creative and independent thinking were used (Mathews *et al*, 1992:120). It could be argued that the content oriented history syllabus left teachers with no alternative but to employ coping strategies that included spotting examination questions and drilling popular sections for examination purposes in order to deal with the overload of content in the syllabus. Reproductive questions that were largely used by teachers required pupils to reproduce something they had learnt and this served the purpose of testing how much pupils memorized for reproduction in the projected objective of success in the content based external examination.

"Recall questions focus on who, when and where, and do not develop history thinking" (Mathews *et al*, 1992:122). If these types of questions dominated history teaching, pupils were left passive and unable to challenge ideas and evidence. This stifled their creativity and ability to interpret historical accounts. All this was justified on the basis of the theory of FP which emphasized the superior role of the teacher in the pedagogic situation. It should be mentioned that this study does not attempt to blame the theory of FP for all problems caused by over emphasis on content-oriented teaching methods. However FP was encouraged by many teacher education institutions and therefore influenced thousands of history teachers in the field.

1.3.4 Textbook Method

Many teachers were dependent entirely on textbooks supplied by the department. For most teachers, regardless of their formal qualifications, particularly those teaching in disadvantaged communities, resources like libraries were scarce and the only source of information was a prescribed textbook. The tendency to follow the textbook and drill the facts in the book was common. Most prescribed textbooks served the requirements of the syllabus. The primary requirement was the teaching of factual knowledge, and these textbooks reflected that need. Because of heavy reliance on the textbooks by both teachers and pupils, historical accounts in the textbooks were taught and learnt as historical truths, never to be questioned and only to be memorized and stored in the mind until the final examination.

The widespread reliance on prescribed textbooks was a serious problem. The textbook method had shortcomings including the fact that factual information from these textbooks consisted of points of view of the authors. Selection of events and perspectives were driven by their own interests and motives as individual historians. More facts were discovered and different perspectives followed by various historians and authors. Discovery of new facts resulted in initial attitudes and positions to change and important facts were not always dealt with. Students have to learn how to identify these gaps and interpret evidence on the basis of understanding that missing and uncovered facts may result in a completely different analysis of world events. Some textbooks contained general statements and neglected to make conclusions and give details. The language often did not suit the developmental stage of the child and with so much content needing to be learnt, pupils were left with no alternative but to memorize facts as they were presented in the textbook (Vorster, 1991:5-9).

1.3.5 The Narrative Method

The narrative method was arguably the most dominant method of history teaching, partly because from an early age children were told stories and it thus provided a familiar medium of instruction. It was the easiest method to use when dealing with large quantities of content and large classes. Teachers simply summarised long sections of the syllabus in a few lesson presentations and told a story of these events.

Stories told did not always link to pupils' understanding and that failed to arouse pupil interest, and some teachers had not developed their own narrative talent in the actual performance of story telling. This became impossible as many teachers used this method in haste to finish the syllabus content. When the narrative method consisted of unnecessary, abstract elaborations and long introductions, pupils were confused (Garvey and Krug, 1977:132).

Knowledge constantly changes, therefore hours of drilling content information through narration by the teacher were rendered useless when new facts were uncovered and old ones become irrelevant. Although South Africa was not one of the world's most developed countries that could afford computers in all its schools, the impact of the technological developments in the so called first world reduced the necessity of memorising facts and storing them for future reference, or lessons, since most facts could be stored in computers for better accessibility, and there was an increasingly better accessibility of computers although this was only the case with the historically advantaged sections of urban dwelling population groups of South Africa.

The narrative method was largely teacher-centred and content-based, if it was used without consideration of the importance of encouraging active pupil involvement in the lesson, it degenerated into relegating pupils' role into passive recipients of teachers' interpretations of the textbook leaving pupils only with the task of reproduction of learned material.

Hierarchical and teacher-oriented approaches were encouraged by the philosophy of teaching discussed above. The narrative method was amongst the most popular teaching methods in South Africa. It dominated the lesson and pupils were passive with questions only limited to those that tested how much content pupils had memorized. This indicated teacher dominance which reflected the society of South Africa whose education had been used to serve the political interests of the white minority and with teachers being used as merely the tools to implement that policy.

1.3.6 Conclusion.

This section examined the theoretical underpinnings of the dominant teaching methods and discussed the content based narrative, textbook and question and answer methods as they were used in South Africa. It also examined the philosophy of teaching which was based on the theory of FP and CNE.

1.4 **History Content in the School Syllabus in South Africa.**

1.4.1 History as a School Subject.

In most schools in South Africa, especially in former white provincial education department schools, those that fell under the House of Delegates and the House of Representatives, pupil interest in history as a subject was declining (Chernis, 1986:50). There could be a variety of reasons for this decline of interest but this study would argue that the approaches that teachers used in the delivery of the history subject matter failed to arouse pupil interest. In schools previously under the DET and homeland education departments most pupils would take history as a subject because subject options were limited and very few teachers were qualified to teach arts, commercial, technological and science subjects. Therefore interest in history cannot be measured by the numbers of pupils who took it as a matriculation subject. It could be argued that redress of the imbalances in the history subject curriculum would lead to better interest in the subject.

History was widely considered as a subject with "low career value", because it did not specifically inform practice in business and industrial mainstream economic activities.

However this could be blamed to the current structure of the history syllabi which over emphasize the ideological, diplomatic and political history and totally ignore the history of economic developments, history of scientific discoveries and various other historical elements of the main features of the curricula of technological, industrial, scientific and commercial subjects. School subjects should be related by teachers' lesson presentations to work environments. This will make school work relevant to reality that pupils will face after completion of their schooling and their interest in the subject will grow. The content oriented teaching which existed, and the nature of history content which was largely not seen by pupils to be contributing to economic development and employment, add to factors leading to the devaluing of the history subject and decrease any available interest. This could be done without risking some "decline of moral values which is bound to happen if education ignores humanitarianism and cultural concerns" (Lamplough, 1991:1).

The sub-sections above maintained that content-based teaching methods used by most history teachers in South Africa strongly relied on textbooks. Despite the pressures that influenced the teachers' selection of teaching methodology there was an increasing quality and quantity of teaching and learning aids which were not utilised and could have helped aroused pupil interest in the history subject.

Some teachers used content-based methods on the basis that children of younger ages were unable to think abstractly. Therefore it was argued that young pupils should be spoon fed with material which was to be assimilated and memorised for reproduction in tests and examinations. Vorster argued that "it is clear that the teacher will have to spend long time in the development of the pupils' memory to enable his young pupils to understand the historical content" (Vorster, 1991:3). Clearly, Vorster implied that, to cope with content, young pupils had to be trained or equipped with the skills of memorization of factual information, the exercise which could be argued to have contributed to low pupil interest in the subject.

Another difficulty with history content was the view that the subject must be presented as hard indisputable facts or else the pupils will be confused and unsettled (Chernis, 1986:56). Pupils were regarded as incapable of dealing with the historical evidence on their own, they were referred to as "liability of the community, a human onticity and exclusively aimed at remaining this" (Killian and Viljoen, 1974:255-261), as the FP contention that pupils were unable to learn on their own and without adult help they were bound to remain children regardless of their physical growth, and so the historical facts were presented to them as undisputable to prevent the possible confusion of the "young". If the teachers regarded themselves as superiors over pupils whose role was to memorize content that the history teachers were drilling into their minds, it was no wonder that pupil interest in history was not increasing.

1.4.2 Gender Discrimination.

History as presently taught in South African schools discriminated against women's contribution to the development of the society. There were countless examples of women operating as individuals or groups, that were not part of the history taught in the classrooms ². It was absurd to try and make any real sense of the past when it ignored the majority gender.

History needed to be redefined and include all the everyday experiences in the past which had to involve women contributions. A study of local history sources could demonstrate a variety of experiences which didn't always appear in secondary works and these could dispel the myth that women were frail, passive and totally dependent on men. The British national curriculum paved the way by stating that "all aspects of the curriculum must

² The role of the outstanding women in the history of South Africa including Mkabayi kaJama, the contributions of Albertina Sisulu, Mthaniya, Helen Suzman, Winnie Mandela, Dorothy Nyembe, Mamphela Ramphele and the unbiased version of Nongqawuse and many others were not given any mention

eliminate sexism and a commitment to equal opportunities should form part of the school"³(Welbourne, 1990:16-17).

But teachers in South Africa did not have to wait for departmental initiatives to eradicate sexism. Much could be achieved if the existing material could be used to indicate gaps of information that could be filled by inclusion of female historic contributions. This could increase pupil awareness and stimulate general curiosity in the direction of historical information left out on sexist grounds.

The history curriculum did not embark on affirmative action and declared itself to be a non-sexist selection of the subject matter to be studied. A history of women implied inclusion of women's past roles and situations, locating women in social, economic religious and psychological modes. Currently it has no dimension which suggested relevant areas and issues under review where the attitudes or the position of women influence the course of events and make clear that history without reference to a role of women and to teach about the significance of their contributions, was to distort the vision of the past. History does not indicate that women were differentiated by class, ethnicity, religion, culture, geography, nationality and political party affiliation (Gardiner, 1988:82). Humphreys argued that:

The history of socialism looks different when Utopian experiments for women are considered. The issues of the French Revolution are clarified when the varieties of women's positions are examined separately from the men's and threatening feminist Republicanism of women's clubs are contrasted with the patriarchal Republicanism of the Jacobins. When critics including women denounced the Old Regime as effeminate and called for the manly virtue from les beaux sexes, a vision of historical events is balanced (cited in Gardiner, 1988:87).

³ The inclusion of some women in the British history was a token gesture. Examples of these women included Florence Nightingale, Elizabeth Fry, Queen Elizabeth and women suffragettes (Welbourne, 1990:161). The new history curriculum for South Africa needed to draw some examples from the British situation and learn that it was not acceptable to include women contributions only to quieten advocates for the redressing of gender imbalances.

Women were and will always be a part of the society and whether the society discriminated against them or not was itself worthy of inclusion in history books.

Women's history faced the challenge of showing that it could transform and enrich the historical content of the mainstream history rather than simply filling in a few gaps. This would address the basic concerns of men and women who object to a history that excluded women without fundamentally altering it. It was argued that " Women's history has to define its subject matter as the history of conceptions of gender" (Humphreys cited in Gardiner, 1988:87). These views could inform the future curricula.

1.4.3 Racism in the History of South Africa.

It was impossible to divorce history in our schools from the control of power in the broader context. There was a need to view the entire curriculum in the school as a by-product of the socio-political context and the historical process in South Africa. The power structures of the colonial rule and up to the period of the Afrikaner Nationalist power elite abused schooling for its own political motives. It was argued that "Afrikaner Nationalists have a tendency to justify their policies in the country by appealing to their interpretation of history" (History News, March, 1983).

The spread of education in the colony of Natal amongst the natives was directed at "making the natives useful to the European" (Samuelson cited in Harley, 1992:45). Sir George Grey, the Governor of the Cape Colony in 1854 made a speech in parliament which confirmed the view that "schools serve the interest of the dominant group in society to ensure social control" (Harley, 1992:28). Grey said that schooling and training was designed such that the African population became "useful servants, consumers of our goods, contributors to our revenue, in short, a source of strength and wealth to the colony" (Kallaway, 1984:51).

It was argued as early as the 1960s that:

The history syllabus was biased in favour of the Afrikaner Nationalist perspective and served to denigrate or ignore the role of other people in the history of the country (Franz Aurbach cited in King and Van Der Berg, 1991:3).

Schools operated to the benefit of dominant political, social and economic groupings within society (Colin Bundy cited in King and Van Der Berg, 1991:4).

The approved textbooks, with a few exceptions, reflected the Afrikaner Nationalist paradigm. As a result, the history that was taught tended to be white-oriented.

Steven Biko, the former Black Consciousness Movement (BCM) leader is quoted as saying:

The history of the black man in this country is most disappointing to read. It is presented as a long succession of defeats. The Xhosas were thieves who went to war for stolen property. The Boers never provoked the Xhosas but they went on "Punitive Expeditions" to teach the thieves a lesson. Great nation builders such as King Shaka are cruel tyrants who frequently attacked smaller tribes for no reason but for some sadistic purposes. Not only is there no objectivity to history taught to South Africans but there is frequently an appalling misrepresentation of facts that sicken even the uninformed student. If we as Blacks want to aid each other in our coming into consciousness, we have to rewrite our history and produce in it heroes that form the core of our resistance to white invaders, unbiased history about us, but we have to destroy the myth that our history starts in 1652, the year Van Riebeeck landed at the Cape. (History News, March, 1983)

In the syllabus and textbooks whites "make" history. Where reference was made to persons classified other than white it only provided the backdrop for the study of the British or Afrikaner policies ⁴.

1.4.4 Content-Oriented History Teaching

Emphasis on content impacted on a method of teaching. It increased the amount of formal teaching and note making in order to get through the bulk of the work prescribed in the

⁴ In the standard 8 syllabus the southward expansion of the Southern Bantu was written in such a way that South Africa was seen to be a country only owned by the Khoisan at the time of arrival of Jan Van Riebeeck. Thus the "Bantu" had as much claim as the Dutch had. As Biko pointed out, none of the syllabus studied by all former education departments in South Africa commence before the arrival of Jan Van Riebeeck or the European Explorers. The standard 8 syllabus concentrated on the Great Trek as an essentially Afrikaner white activity resulting in the "opening up" of the interior, a focus of the "patriotic" movement as a background to republicanism studied in standard 9 and 10, stressing the development of "own identity" among the trekboers (Historical Teachers' Association, March, 1983).

syllabus (Jones, 1973:12). Jones argued that where a subject had a syllabus in which content played a predominant part, the selection and organisation of the content and the piece of work were likely to be based on elitist principles and the resultant teaching methods tended to be hierarchical in nature (1973:12).

"Pedagogy was not the technical process of transmitting curriculum content to achieve prespecified learning outcomes" (Stenhouse cited in Elliot, 1990:9). This could be argued to imply that when teaching was used to transmit prespecified goals approaches had to be used that empowered pupils to learn and deal with content on their own.

1.5 Assessment of History in South African Secondary Schools

1.5.1 Introduction

This sub-section will examine the assessment of history by the DET, the HOR and the Natal Education Department (NED) to give a comparative picture of assessment standards of the former black, coloured and also white education departments. This section on assessment should be viewed in the light of the fundamental concern of this study that "the senior certificate has a powerful "backwash effect" on both the nature of the history taught and the teaching methodologies employed in the classroom" (1993:211).

1.5.2 The Content Based DET Syllabus and Senior Certificate

Examination Requirements

Among the issues that influenced teachers' approaches to the way they dealt with the syllabus was the question of requirements of the external examination. The purpose of assessment was to find out what was happening in response to teaching (diagnose), to evaluate the quality of teaching, assigning grades of achievement to candidates, and prediction of future success (Macintosh and Hale cited in Fines, 1983:180). This implies that teachers were also evaluated by the societies and stakeholders in their schools according to the achievements of their pupils in the external examination, thus highlighting the power of these examinations because teachers had to teach to its demands.

The external examination only assessed content and yet the syllabus mentioned skills as well. This contradiction poses the question whether teachers followed the syllabus or the requirements of the public examination. The formal examination in the DET consisted of two papers of two hours each. Each paper of either South African or general history consisted of two essay questions and one set of non-essay questions such as short paragraphs, contextual questions, multiple choice, discussion, interpretation of pictures, cartoons, diagrams and short questions requiring knowledge of "important facts". For higher grade students, essay questions were allocated 150 marks for two essays of 75 marks each. Non-essay questions were 50 marks and the final mark was 200, and the total for both papers was 400.

The DET marking memorandum used in 1993 and 1994 illustrated that pupils were required to memorize 50 facts if they were to be allocated 25 marks for insight. Thus marks for comprehension and insight were allocated according to the number of facts candidates memorized. Content knowledge was given preference and considered of primary importance over insight and comprehension (see table 1.3).

The memorandum indicated that DET history assessment was based on content memorisation and reproduction. Pupils got marks in column B for comprehension and insight according to the number of facts they had reproduced in column A (see table 1.3)

TABLE 1.3 DET Memorandum NOO45[I]93

Number of facts at 1 mark each	Marks for comprehension & insight
A	B
0 - 10	00
11 - 12	03
13 - 14	04
15 - 16	05
17 - 18	06
19	07
20	08
21	10
22 - 23	11
24 - 25	12
26 - 27	13
28 - 29	14
30 - 31	15
32 - 33	16
34 - 35	17
36 - 37	18
38 - 39	19
40 - 41	20
42 - 43	21
44 - 45	22
46 - 47	23
48 - 49	24
50	25 = 75 TOTAL

75 X 2 essays = 150 marks

multiple choice = 50 marks

Total = 200 X 2 Papers

= 400 (PI and PII)

In the history syllabuses for standard 8, 9 and 10 history was defined as "the study based on evidence where a selection of facts and events were arranged, interpreted and explained" (see Appendix C). The sixth general aim of history was "to contribute to pupils' understanding as an academic discipline and the intellectual skills and perspectives which such a study involves" (see appendix C) and the second specific aim of these syllabuses was:

To give pupils an understanding and appreciation of such historical skills as the ability to locate evidence, and to organise, classify and interpret this evidence in a logical way and to communicate historical ideas
(DET, 1987:4).

These were the specific skills that were tabulated for teachers to teach, but having examined the marking memorandum above, one would recognise the contradictions of the DET assessment and teaching standards which leave the teachers with a choice of whether to teach to the demands of the syllabus or teach that which will help pupils pass. With the teacher getting credit for the success of his or her pupils in the external examination, there was an understandable tendency to do the latter. The recent DET memorandum NOO45 (I) 94 (see table 1.4) for the 1994 November external examination for the standard 10 history candidates indicated a slight change in approach. It gave sub-examiners some autonomy to credit marks for logical presentation of facts, extensive reading and better insight. The only candidates who qualified to get these marks were those who memorised between 14-48 facts and those candidates who got more than 40 facts correctly did not get more than 5 marks for their effort. In essence the memorandum for 1994 had not changed its content basis and still ignored some syllabus requirements mentioned above (see table 1.4).

TABLE 1.4 DET Memorandum NOO 45 [i] 94

Marks for facts	Marks for comprehension and insight	Marks for those candidates who qualify
0-10	00	00
11-13	01	00
14-16	02	02
17-20	03	03
26-30	05	05
31	06	09
32	07	09
33	08	08
34	09	08
35	10	07
36	11	07
37	12	06
38	13	06
39	14	05
40	15	05
41	16	04
42	17	04
43	18	03
44	19	03
45	20	02
46	21	02
47	22	01
48	23	01
49	24	00
50	25	00 = total = 75

Both the 1993 and 1994 DET history memorandums for the external examination indicate that the DET history candidates were assessed primarily on their memorisation of facts, thus making the assessment content-based. The matric final examination forces the teacher to teach the subject with one aim in mind, namely getting her pupils to attain as many good symbols as possible (Chernis, 1987:52). The teachers would fear wasting time on innovative teaching methods and the syllabus would be tackled such that those sections most likely to be tested are dealt with and those unlikely to be tested are omitted. The result was a "disjointed, less attractive and partial perspective in which the thread of events and continuity is lost" (Chernis, 1987:52). The likely result of such a situation was among many other reasons the decline of interest among pupils and increased failure rate amongst those who did take history as a school subject.

1.5.3 The External Examination Requirement For the ex-HOR Education Department.

The year mark and the examination marks in the ex-HOR matriculation schools were provided as set out in the following table:

Table 1.5 History Examination Marks for HG ex-HOR Schools

	Exam Paper	Time (hours)	Exam Mark	Year Mark	June Mark	Sept Mark	Grand Total
Written Examination	1	3	325				325
Controlled Tests				25			25
Quarterly Examination Mark					25	25	50
TOTAL			325	25	25	25	400

History evaluation of the essay-type answer in the former HOR schools were provided as follows:

TABLE 1.6 Allocation of Marks for Insight and Adaptation in ex-HOR Schools.

Grade Standard	Facts + Insight = Total	Ratio	Adaptation
HG 10	50 + 25 = 75	2:1	-3 to 2 -
HG 9	50 + 20 = 70	2,5:1	3 to 2 -
HG 8	50 + 10 = 60	5:1	2 to 1 -
SG 8-10	40 + 10 = 50	4:1	2 to 1 -
7	36 + 09 = 45	4:1	1 to 1

The marking procedure included consideration of the use of specific signs, logical exposition, comprehensiveness of the answer, use of words indicating the sub-examiners' total impression concerning the answer and the determining of the insight mark.

The sub-examiners had to use a tick for a correct answer, underline wrong words, dates and statements. To indicate information that was left out an arrow was used. A vertical dotted line was used if the information provided was irrelevant. Logical exposition was determined by:

The arrangement of facts such that they form a unity, and when the answer started at the correct fact and ended with the last fact that should be included in the answer, that answer was considered comprehensive. The insight that candidates were considered to have shown was determined by the amount of facts provided (van Niekerk, 1995:2).

The ex-HOR examination requirements and its marking procedures (see Tables 1.5 and 1.6) were similar to the ex-DET NOO 45 (i) 94 memorandum shown in table 1.4. The following guidelines will show the marking criteria of the ex-NED to give a fuller picture of the marking procedures, approaches and standards used by the ex-departments of education in the KwaZulu-Natal province.

1.5.4 Guidelines for Sub-examiners in the Former NED

The DET syllabus for standards 8, 9 and 10 aimed at developing pupils' understanding of "content, skills and attitudes" (DET, 1987:2). In harmony with these syllabuses was the guide of the sub-examiners for the Senior Certificate Examination of the NED. The study of these guidelines will give a broader view of how history was assessed in White and better equipped and resourced schools. The sub-examiners in the NED follow a marking procedure which divided answers into five categories (see table 1.7).

TABLE 1.7 : The Categories of Pupils' Answers.

Grades		Percentage	Marks
A	Excellent answers	90-100	108-120
A	Very good answers	80-90	96-107
B/C	Good answers	60-79	72-95
E/D	Average answers	40-59	48-71
G/FF/F	Poor answers	25-39	30-47
GG/H	Very weak answers	00-24	00-29

(NED, Guidelines for Sub-examiners, 1994:4)

Candidates who obtained 90-100 per cent with marks between 108-120 were those who argued with insight, complete focus on questions, distinguished between the relevant and the irrelevant, important and the trivial, those who controlled the subject matter and its presentation, gave a well structured essay and had as good answers as can be expected in 50 minutes. These candidates got an "A" grade for their excellent answers (see table 1.7). "Candidates whose answers were slightly flawed" (NED, guidelines, 1991:5), with small irrelevance, small omissions, a lapse of style, and a slight lack of control of subject and presentation, got between 80-90 per cent and obtained 96-107 marks. These were considered as very good answers and also got an "A" grade. Answers that were largely

relevant but with a weaker focus, knowledge, insight, planning, and expression got between 60-79 per cent and 72-95 marks. Their grade was "C/B" and their answers were considered good. For candidates between 40-59 per cent, obtaining 48-71 marks and symbols "E/D", their answers were considered average, and their focus may have been intermittent with gaps in knowledge and reasoning and characterised by narrative. Poor answers were those for candidates whose marks were between 30-47 and their percentage range between 25-39. These candidates got "G/FF/F" grades, and they made no attempt to answer the question no matter how good the factual knowledge was. Their essays were full of gaps, errors, faulty style and poor organisation. Those obtaining between 0-29 marks and 0-24 per cent get "GG/H" grades, their essays are completely irrelevant with massive gaps and errors, inadequate style and answers worthless and lacking correct facts (NED, guidelines, 1991:5).

The marking approach reflected in Memo-HG 919 (3) above indicates that the NED history assessment was not based only on content knowledge. There was no emphasis on the number of facts that candidates had to memorise before they got marks for insight, as was the case with the DET memorandum and the ex-HOR marking procedure. Non-essay questions tested some of the following skills: comprehension, inference, evaluation, judgement, extrapolation, correlation, cross-reference, historiography and empathy (NED, guidelines, 1991:4). "Marks are given for levels of thinking rather than for pure knowledge" (ibid) (see table 1.8).

TABLE 1.8 : Levels of Thinking

LEVEL 1	A simple, general statement, unsupported by evidence from the source(s)
LEVEL 2	Reference is made to the source(s) which is accepted at face value.
LEVEL 3	Some questioning of the face value of the source(s) with little evaluation.
LEVEL 4	Detailed evaluation, questioning the provenance, the writer's motives, cross-checks with other sources.

The skill of empathy had a special place in the assessment of both the essay and the non-essay type questions. There were four levels of evaluating empathy. These levels were divided into four worlds, namely, the past as it actually was, the past as those there at the time saw it, how they said it was and how they see it today (see table 1.9) (NED, guidelines, 1991:5).

TABLE 1.9 :Possible Levels of Evaluating Empathy.

LEVEL 1	Uses knowledge to describe a way of life, not an empathetic response . Judging the past in terms of the present, regarding past actions as intelligent.
LEVEL 2	"Every empathy", some awareness of a specific situation but seen in terms of modern values and ideas or relies on hindsight .
LEVEL 3	"Restricted historical empathy", Candidate understands the role of hind sight and of different values, attitudes and beliefs but does not deal with the wider context eg. " All Arabs are terrorists ".
LEVEL 4	"Contextual historical empathy", where the thinking and feelings of individuals within the group may be shown. The situation and the overall context should be woven together to produce a coherent overall account.

On the basis of the NED guide for sub-examiners it could be argued that the NED examination placed a strong emphasis on the sub-examiners' judgement of the candidates' answer. The guide had no clear guidelines and frameworks within which sub-examiners would assess the candidates. The assessment criteria of both the NED and DET were very different from each other. They reflected the differences in education provision between former white Provincial Education Departments and those for black education which were and still are poorly equipped and resourced. However the assessment of history in the NED was only similar with the Cape Education Department (CED) and different to the other two provincial departments, the Transvaal Education Department (TED), and the Orange Free State Education Department (OFSED), which assessed history comparably to the DET and the homeland education departments, largely based on assessment of the content knowledge of the history subject.

1.6 Conclusion

This chapter gave a brief historical background to education in South Africa. It described the context within which history was taught, the dominant history teaching methods in use, the view of historical facts as truth, and examined how history is assessed by the DET, the HOR, and the NED. Teachers were reflected as the receivers of the curriculum and not the creators of what they teach. The syllabuses were reflected as overloaded with content and highly restrictive of teacher autonomy.

Teachers strictly adhered to the prescribed textbooks and emphasize rote-learning and factual information. Matriculation examination was portrayed as dominating teaching and overshadowing other aspects of the curriculum "determining not only what is acceptable lesson content, but also the pedagogy employed in classrooms. It was argued that "the "backwash effect" of the examination is often felt throughout the senior school and primary level since the internal assessment is based on its model" (NEPI, 1992:26).

Problems of education in South Africa were described as deeply rooted in the historical, socio-political and economic issues.

CHAPTER TWO

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SKILLS-BASED APPROACH (SBA) IN HISTORY TEACHING IN SOUTH AFRICA.

2.1. Introduction.

Chapter One described the historical context within which history teaching took place in South Africa. History teaching was outlined as largely content-based and teacher-centred. Chapter Two examines the paradigm shift to a skills-based approach (SBA) and its introduction in South Africa. The SBA is defined on how the SBA came about by examining the struggle for differing interpretations of history, local debates on a paradigm shift to a SBA in a new history curriculum, the background to the introduction of the SBA in the former NED, and by examining its international development. It describes what the SBA is, by analyzing some prominent history skills. It also indicates how the SBA could be taught through the dominant history teaching methods. Finally the KZDEC policy decision to implement the SBA in January 1995 will be explored.

2.2 How the SBA Came About

2.2.1 The Impact of the Struggle for Democracy on Interpretations of History

Steven Biko (quoted in Chapter One) pointed to the racism in the content of the history syllabuses in South African schools. He pointed to the history of blacks as being presented as a succession of defeats. Xhosas were presented as thieves and King Shaka as a tyrant who attacked smaller nations for sadistic purposes (History News, March, 1983). This indicated racist content selection and distortions in the writing of the history of South Africa. Resistance to racist education provision since the 1976 uprising impacted heavily on schooling in black areas and by 1985 there were widespread demands for "people's education" (PE).

The democratic movement which included the National Education Crisis Committee (NECC), the African National Congress (ANC), the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU), the Pan Africanist Congress (PAC) and the Azanian People's Organisation (AZAPO) differed in their party political interpretations of the principles of a unitary system, non-racism, non-sexism, and democracy. But they all embraced "people's education" which embodied these principles and advocated democratic structures such as the Parent-Teacher-Student Associations (PTSAs), and Student Representative Councils (SRCs). Its strongest demand was that of a single education system (NEPI, 1992:30).

Questions were raised by some stakeholders in education as to how the history helped students to participate in a democratic society. Colin Bundy referred to the history subject as "distorting the past, exclusive, elitist and shallow. It is silent and misleading on the historical experience of the majority of South Africans" (Kros, 1987:9). Indeed there were profound silences in the South African history. The most obvious was the absence of the history of resistance other than Ghandi's passive resistance⁵.

Resistance to apartheid education by the democratic movement recognised that although alternative schools and programmes were necessary, it was not possible to provide them without access to national resources and power. Therefore schools were to be transformed from within. The "peoples power had to rise within the apartheid structures" (Johnson, 1985:11). This struggle for change led to confrontation with the National Party government, its satellite state education hierarchies, and students. This led to disruptions, stayaways and complete anarchy in some schools in urban and rural areas. This struggle affected school subjects, particularly the history, where many questions and interpretations were raised. It

⁵ The deformities of the past were everywhere in evidence. Wars of resistance to colonialism by black tribes like the Anglo-Zulu War of 1879, the Battle of Magonggo and the Bhabatha Rebellion of 1906 were only mentioned in passing despite their historic significance to the whole country. In white junior primary schools "history pupils are still taught about how little Helena Lottrie saved the life of her father by spreading her skirts to catch the spears of fierce black hordes" (Kros, 1987:69).

was asked why "we are taught history as if we are foreigners in our motherland" (Johnson, 1985:16). By October 1985 there was an increased presence of the South African Defence Force (SADF) in black townships. Increased numbers of students were shot, injured or killed and the Congress of South African Students (COSAS) was banned (Johnson, 1985:16). By 7 March 1986 the NECC was established to direct the struggle for PE.

It became clear that education was a national issue and that the demands for PE were a new strategy to pressurise the government for the transformation of society and the education system. Progressive teaching material increased and "awareness programmes involved education in the history of South Africa" (Mkhatshwa, 1985:13). The PE was a response to a racist education and the "people's history" emphasized the history of ordinary people.

The "people's education" movement led to a skills-based thrust:

As we make uneasy progress through the phase of transition to a non-racial democracy, we have to confront differing presentations of the past and make sure that a minority or a majority does not simply use history to legitimise dominion. Is it possible to teach history in a manner that is intellectually enriching? Can a creative methodology be devised that can develop in our students historical and critical skills, one that can get students to understand the historian's craft and method of enquiry?

(Kros and Vadi, 1993:94).

These views represent a concern by some history teachers that history teaching methodology was not encouraging the creativity of students. Other PE advocates argued that "in order to teach in a way which invoked peoples' capacity of problematising the subject matter, school projects which invoked a logical investigation outside the classroom might be encouraged" (Mckay and Room, 1992:122).

Mckay and Romm argued that PE :

Denotes the need for both a new system of education and socio-political change. It is a precursor of or catalyst to liberation. It implies that education will have popular input and be made available to everyone (1992:1).

The view expressed above on the PE was similar to the one that:

When we speak of the PE we mean one which prepares people for total human liberation, one which helps people to be creative, to develop a critical mind, one that prepares people for full participation in all social, political, or cultural spheres of life (Mkhatshwa cited in McKay and Romm, 1992:107).

These views could be argued to be comparable to claims by the advocates of the SBA that this approach empowers pupils with the skills of critical thinking.

PE proposed that:

The learning situation should be characterised by a dialogue between the learner and the educator. In terms of the humanistic perspective, teaching becomes seen as the facilitation of knowledge production rather than a transference of pre-packed knowledge (McKay, 1990 cited in McKay and Romm, 1992:116).

Teachers were challenged by PE to "become jointly responsible with students, for a process in which all grow" (Freire cited in McKay and Romm, 1992:116).

Demands of the PE advocates made an impact on how history was interpreted. Marc Ferrer raised fundamental issues concerning reconceptualisation of the schools' history curriculum in South Africa, when he argued that:

It is high time to confront these differing interpretations of the past, for with the widening of the world's horizons, with its economic unification but continuing political disunity, our differing views of the past have, more than ever, become one of the factors in conflicts between states, nations, cultures and national groups. To control the past is to master the present, to legitimise dominion and justify legal claims. It is the dominant powers-states, churches, political parties, private interests-which own or finance the media or the means of reproduction, whether it be school books or strip cartoons, films or television programmes. Increasingly, they are abandoning us all to the uniform past. Revolt comes from those to whom history is "forbidden". And then, tomorrow, which nation, which human group will still be able to control its own history? (Ferro, 1984: vii, cited in Kros and Vadi, 1993: 92).

This view was challenging uniform interpretation of history in a way that favours the

dominant group⁶. Advocates of the SBA stressed the empowerment of pupils with historical skills which could equip them to deal with evidence critically. Parallels could be drawn between such claims and calls made by the advocates of the PE for a curriculum which empowered pupils with the following skills (see table 2.1):

The acquisition of technological skills was considered central to the technically informed curriculum. Judgement was a focal point for the practically informed curriculum. For the operation of the emancipatory interest within the curriculum, the skill of critique was considered fundamental. This was based on the notion that a critical community must be supported by a critical classroom. The skill of discourse is to free human consciousness from the suppression of ideological conceptions. It leads to the skill of recognising that all knowledge is negotiable. Communicative discourse has to be explored as a fundamental skill in the Peoples' Education project (Mckay and Romm, 1992:218).

TABLE 2.1: PE Skills

SKILLS	AIMS
Technological	Technically informed
Judgement	Practically informed curriculum
Discourse	Human consciousness
Communication	Fundamental skill of the PE "indissolubility of speech and freedom"
Critique	Critical community : emancipation

(Mckay and Romm, 1992:218)

⁶ Historian Julian Cobbing questioned the evidence on South African Broadcasting Corporation's (SABC's) Shaka Zulu film. He viewed Shaka as an ineffectual king contrary to Henry Fynn's view of King Shaka as a brave nation builder. All this debate on evidence meant nothing to television viewers "who have taken Henry Cele (acting Shaka) into their hearts" (Kros, 1987:15). Most viewers were not in a position to detect bias, their interpretation of the film was not critical, hence the call by advocates of the PE that teachers had to equip their pupils with skills for critical thinking. "Schooling fostered passivity" (Kros, 1987:15) in the viewers

Oppression was connected with "a theme of silence" (Freire cited in McKay and Romm, 1992:218). There was "an indissolubility of speech and freedom" (1992:218). Peoples' capacity of articulating a vision of reality became muted in the culture of silence. These views could be traced back to the poor classroom communication that is largely characterised by pupil silence and teachers' orders and narratives in many schools in historically disadvantaged societies.

If students are to be empowered by school experience, one of the elements of their education must be that they acquire mastery of language as well as the capacity to think conceptually and critically (Aronowitz and Giroux, 1986 cited in McKay and Romm, 1992:218).

The focus on language, concepts and critical thinking suggested that any subject in the curriculum should be taught in such a way that students learn the constructed character of the codes used. As much as language had been identified as the key barrier in classroom communication it must be mentioned that cultural tendencies were largely responsible for pupil silence in the classroom situations. It was considered respectful and co-operative for children to be silent in the presence of adults among some indigenous societies of South Africa, therefore pupils tended to be silent in the presence of their teachers. Teachers educated in the context of apartheid were trained to manipulate such cultural differences whether consciously or unconsciously. The PE advocates attempted to bring awareness among teachers that pupil silence served directly or indirectly the interests of the dominant political minority in power.

Even with respect to the teaching of science as it was the case with history teaching, the factual approach and pupil silence was discouraged, the Science Curriculum Initiatives in South Africa (SCISA) suggested that:

Science should be presented as an ongoing critical dialogue to understand the environmental phenomena and to solve environmental problems rather than as an accumulation of complex and inaccessible ideas (SCISA cited in McKay and Romm, 1992:122).

Even subjects like mathematics and science were challenged to be:

Scrutinised and explored dialogically so that the problematic character of the subject matter is highlighted to encourage students to think critically so that they might give their own interpretation to the data (Freire cited in Mckay and Romm, 1992:122).

The history teachers were challenged by the PE advocates to empower their pupils to work through the historical evidence and arrive at independent conclusions (Vadi, 1990 cited in Mckay and Romm, 1992:125). Criticism was levelled at teachers' presentation of facts leading to their unproblematic acceptance by pupils. The curriculum was proposed to focus on "basic critical awareness" (Krige and Witz, 1990 cited in Mckay and Romm, 1992:125). That proposal was problematic when it was considered that the teachers were trained in the context in which any critical approach was discouraged through the examination system which did not credit it, and content overloaded syllabuses which left no time for teachers to teach what the examinations did not reward.

History teachers were challenged to design that encouraged interpretation which must be subjected to continuing dialogue to invoke a sense of the notion that the meaning of history is always debatable (Mckay and Romm, 1992:126). Despite these efforts the context in which teachers found themselves was not conducive for application of PE proposals. The PE advocates continued their efforts despite the difficult circumstances in which they operated.

The history syllabus has been described as overloaded with content (see Chapter One). Content in the syllabus was described as full of gaps and lacking continuity and details in some sections. Cynthia Kros made the following example to clarify this:

In the autobiography of Denis Hirson : the House next door to Africa history teaching in white schools is a monologue delivered at speed, Voortrekkers become Afrikaners and the marauding tribesmen are lining up for health inspections before going down the mines (1987:21).

This strengthened the argument for the SBA and PE proposals that history teaching had to be reformed. It also explained criticism of the curriculum and the demands for democracy by the PE movement.

PE "is inextricably bound up with a concept of "peoples power" which is the collective strength of the community and an expression of the will of the people" (Hartshorne cited in McKay and Romm, 1992:107). Therefore it could be safely argued that PE advocates were striving for democracy through reforming the system of education.

Gramsci envisaged a "mature scholar" with skills of logical thinking. He was concerned with teaching of the students the skills of logic and analysis including a vision for democracy:

Antonio Gramsci wrote whilst in prison in Italy in the 1920's that democracy must mean that every citizen can govern and that society places him, even if only abstractly, in a general condition to achieve this (Kros, 1987:21).

Therefore the concept of skills training could not be dissociated with the proposals of the PE advocates, however it was still debatable and could not be clearly indicated that the PE movement specifically envisaged some of the claims of the SBA.

Cynthia Kros in her observation as a matric history teacher noted that matric writings lacked the basic tools for historical understanding. Students were unable to assess the validity of the evidence they were presented with and they did not know that historians work with evidence and that history was not ready made. Even if teachers had a sound methodological training the syllabus paranoia to cover all the facts prevented effective teaching. If the concerns of Kros about a content overloaded syllabus and those of Gramsci about equipping pupils with skills of logical thinking were to be addressed, the views of the advocates of the SBA will certainly have to be considered. The NECC suggested that:

The struggle for democracy in South Africa has to a large extent influenced teachers to develop a questioning approach to their own work and to develop in their pupils the skills of acquiring information and of the critical analysis of such information, the skill of forming one's conclusions (synthesis) and language skills through speech, writing and reading (1987:3).

It could be argued on the basis of the NECC suggestion that the teachers' approach in their daily teaching activities was not reflective of that influence, particularly with reference to teachers working in disadvantaged communities.

The positions of the advocates of the PE explored above and their justification of the need

for a critical approach in teaching, and specifically in history teaching, were viewed in the light of the context of the general struggle for socio-political, cultural and economic democratisation of South Africa.

2.2.2 Some Debates on a Paradigm Shift to a SBA in a New History Curriculum

This section shows that during the late 1980s and early 1990s some revisionist academics and progressive teachers were striving for the application of a more critical academic methodology to school teaching in general and history teaching specifically, by drawing on debates from three history curriculum conferences at the University of Natal, University of Witwatersrand, and the University of Cape Town held in 1992, which gave academics and teachers the opportunity to contribute to the process of forming a new history curriculum in South Africa.

At the Durban conference for history teachers held in February 1992, it was agreed that the philosophy of history chosen to replace Afrikaner Nationalism would have to accommodate both a revisionist approach and the people's history approach within the syllabus. It was not clear how that was to be achieved if the amount of content was to be reduced to address the problem of a content overloaded syllabus. However, the Durban conference considered content changes as essential. It was also agreed that the SBA should be given a prominent place in the curriculum debates, and that the history syllabus needed to define both the type of textbooks and methods of assessment required for the senior certificate history examination (Sieborger and Viglieno, 1993:7-13). The question of the SBA was linked to history assessment which could be argued to indicate awareness that introduction of the SBA without a relevant assessment criteria would be fruitless.

The three conferences raised the importance of formulating aims and objectives for the new history curriculum. It was agreed that, whether made explicit or not, the aim of history teaching is to prepare pupils to intervene in the contemporary historical process (Alexander 1993: 14). That view did not clearly indicate if it was in favour of the skills-based approach but it could be argued that the process of preparation of pupils to intervene in the contemporary historical process would require some equipping of pupils with skills to deal

with historical evidence on their own. As the present history syllabus states one of its purposes is to "integrate content, skills and attitudes" (DET, 1987:2)(also see Appendices D, E and F). In these conferences a view was raised that skills could just as well be general education skills (Farista, 1993:16). This view questioned the notion of skills as specific historical skills and this explained the confusion that arises if one referred to the "skills-based approach" to history teaching without a clear or specific definition of just what the historical skills were. It was precisely for this reason that this study preferred to follow and confine itself to the definition of the KZDEC which elevated analysis, empathy, extrapolation, synthesis, communication and evaluation as major history skills. These were not the only history skills, as there were many skills that the historian employed when dealing with evidence. Hence the debates around skills particularly "empathy", which some historians found difficult to accept as a skill although the KZDEC strongly argued that it was one of the most important history skills and recommended in its 1995 standard eight guide that history teachers teach empathy as a history skill among the most important others.

John Pampallis believed that:

We cannot hide behind the SBA and use it as a substitute for changing the content of the syllabus. This approach is important but it has to be introduced together with content changes
(Pampallis, 1993:21).

This view was eclectic, considering both content and skills as important components in history teaching and raised concern that if efforts were centred on the teaching of history skills, and content problems were neglected, the new history curriculum would fail to meet the expectations of thousands of history students, teachers and the wider general public.

Intellectual skills could be useful across the curriculum as McCormick referred to integrated studies as:

Beneficial to teachers putting them in charge of reading materials, give them control of the curriculum, make them learners and that skills can be introduced, different methods tried and values can be introduced
(McCormick, 1993:13).

Alagoa affirmed that:

History is related to other disciplines like economics, political science, sociology, anthropology and linguistics. Practitioners of history require knowledge of techniques and methodologies of other subjects to fully exploit specialized documents (Alagoa, 1978:13).

However if one envisaged some hurdles in the way of the SBA in history teaching then an integrated approach would be more difficult to implement. Much more research was necessary to evaluate the value of each skill and the use of each skill across the curriculum. Private schools which could afford the expenses of programmes and research on an integrated approaches should be encouraged to do so and should not be hampered by a drive to create uniform standards for all in South Africa. When and if the SBA was implemented, and a reasonable success was achieved, then an integrated approach could be experimented with. It was a fact that history was related to other disciplines.

During the Cape Town conference on the history curriculum a question of availability of resources was raised in terms of the possible adoption of the SBA. Reference was made to Britain where the Schools Council's SBA required expensive resources. It was questioned whether the SBA would not bring about insecurity among children because they would not know what to do, as many had no textbooks and when they were to be faced with many documents and lots of evidence they would be confused (Krige, 1993:47). If it was considered that most schools in South Africa were situated in rural areas, farms and urban townships where the scarcity or lack of teaching and learning resources was a serious socio-economic problem that would take the state many years to address. If a teaching approach that relies on expensive materials was implemented it would be a failure. But the situation in such schools was such that history teaching needed urgent attention. Despite the concerns raised at the three conferences history skills nevertheless were considered important. It was proposed that there be the development of a skills or source-based history and that this approach should not favour those teachers or students who have access to extra resources and materials (History Education Group, 1993:48).

It was proposed that the internal assessment of history include an evidence section. The fact that the existing history syllabus did mention skills was indicated, but criticism was levelled at the external paper, which made little or no attempt to test skills such as comprehension or interpretation. The assessment of history externally influenced the way history was taught and examined internally, and the real solution to the problem of how to improve history teaching lay in the reform of the external examination system (Bottaro 1993: 33). Hiscock affirmed that "the most effective means to get the skills-based approach accepted nationally is to incorporate it into the public examination structure" (1993:34). Most schools that were under the former DET, HOD, HOR and former departments of education in former homelands were spending most of their time drilling previous examination papers to prepare their pupils as opposed to teaching them to deal with history evidence on their own. Mokgalabone correctly described the situation in Black schools as one in which:

Black schools are only concerned with passing content-based examinations. A question was whether history was used for the purpose of teaching children or lying with each other to catch examiners (1993:30).

Some claims were made at the three conferences that the SBA embraced and incorporated mastery of a range of concepts and skills plus an historiographical approach. The theory behind the SBA had to be mastered if teachers were to be aware of the state of the art. The approach was considered not to be content free as there was a relationship between content and method since the method adopted, played a role in defining and selecting content and that students must have to had a narrative framework within which to work in order that content be placed within its historical context.

The debates challenging the existing history curriculum also identified obstacles in the way of a more effective teaching of the history subject. These obstacles were the :

- i. Type of teacher-education that impacts on how teachers teach history.
- ii. Content-based history didactics taught at tertiary institutions.
- iii. FP theory which overemphasises teacher dominance in the teaching-learning situation.
- iv. The theory of history and history assessment.
- v. The textbooks on which teachers are dependent (O'Connel, 1993:29).

These challenges as outlined above embraced the core of difficulties that history teachers were faced with, but there were no specific suggestions on dealing with them, for instance specific training required to re-educate teachers trained in the apartheid era, retraining of teacher trainers or lecturers at conservative universities and colleges of education, and problems related to the legacy of apartheid.

"History is both process and product therefore it must include skills required in producing it" (Kapp, 1993:16). Therefore it could be argued that it was important to empower history students with knowledge of how history facts were gathered, why certain facts were selected for study whilst an abundance of others were left unused or even uncovered, why the authors of prescribed books preferred to deal with only those facts they included in their books and even to question why the education bureaucracy prescribed certain books by specific authors and not others. This may have enlightened history pupils of the processes involved in bringing about the product of an historical enquiry. Unfortunately as chapter one stated only the end product was dealt with and the examinations did not reward the pupils' efforts other than reproduction of facts.

It was argued that the curriculum should be developed around a set of aims reflecting a particular methodology within which particular historical skills were inscribed. The curriculum development should be rooted in the idea that curriculum was a construction that related to the way in which educational practices were organised through an ongoing experiment both in the classroom and in wider society (Carr and Kemmis, 1986 and Grundy, 1987 cited in McKay and Romm, 1992:215). It should "take as its object the task of educating students to become active and critical citizens, capable of intellectual skills" (Aronowitz and Giroux cited in McKay and Romm, 1992:215). These views could be acceptable to many but they still fell short of explaining how the curriculum would ensure an assessment criteria that tested and credited critical thinking. The current history syllabus prescribed the teaching of history skills, the very skills that some at the conferences recommended, but because the current examination criteria only credited factual reproduction, skills were not taught to history pupils.

The three conferences argued that the history content must be reduced without excluding women's historical contributions. The proposals related to content were as follows:

- i. Content is not to be defined by stated boundaries but understood in terms of the links between the southern part of the continent and the rest of Africa.
- ii. Study of pre-colonial African past.
- iii. Afrocentric approach to history reflecting more of African cultures and world views to be interpreted in terms of Africa's contribution to European and world history.
- iv. Promotion of world citizenship in the curriculum.
- v. Redress of previously neglected areas of content and syllabus such as early human history.
- vi. Organising content to include use of skills and concepts.
- vii. Textbooks designed with the systematic development of the skills of the historian in mind.

(History Education Group, 1993:48-51).

Regarding the Afrocentric approach and the content not being defined by state boundaries it would be argued that history content should not move to the opposite direction of the previous Eurocentric and apartheid history. As much as these were to be transformed, it remained important that past mistakes were not repeated. A holistic approach that emphasized connections between themes and different geographic areas to avoid a situation in which history moved to the opposite extreme of the existing curriculum. It would be important that local and regional historical factors were not sacrificed to achieve that goal of not confining history within our borders when there was so much economic and socio-political interaction between South Africa and Southern Africa and the rest of Africa and the world.

2.2.3. Background to the Introduction of the SBA in the Former NED

This section shows how the SBA was introduced in South Africa and the channels it followed before adoption by the NED. An examiner and senior lecturer of the University of Natal, Mr. M. Spencer and a senior history teacher at Hilton College, Mr. J. Nisbet brought changes in the Natal Senior Examination history paper in the mid 1970's. In 1978, Nisbet introduced some teachers in the Natal history subject committee, to the work of the British Schools Council History Project 13-16 (SCHP) of 1972. By then private schools like Kearsney and Hilton College were already using SCHP materials.

The concepts and skills based approach to history learning and teaching was introduced at senior primary schools in Natal during the late 1970s. In the early eighties there were already skills-based in-service courses for high school teachers. In 1979 a formal request by the History Subject Committee chairman was made for the possibility of the introduction of the SBA. Macintosh, the examiner from Britain was invited by the heads of private schools in Natal to promote the concepts-and-skills approach to history teaching. The NED agreed in 1979 and 1980 for a pilot project in six schools. Workshops and in-service courses for teachers increased and they were organised by both the NED and the Natal History Teachers' Society. The major problem by 1981 was the limited availability of materials that were better suited to the South African context. The Head of Department of history Mrs. I. Machin and senior lecturer in history at Edgewood College in Pinetown Mr. J. Mathews collaborated in the writing of textbooks and the first book was used for the second phase syllabus and was introduced into Natal schools in the early eighties. The preamble to the senior primary history syllabuses for standard 2, 3 and 4 required history teachers to teach skills associated with the historical enquiry.

In 1991 the Deputy Superintendent of Education for Academic Senior Primary Education of the NED was quoted as saying that history was viewed as "encompassing more than just the acquisition and reproduction of factual content and that the development of appropriate skills, concepts and attitudes is a key objective" (Simchowitz, 1992:20).

On the basis of these developments one could argue that most white history teachers in the NED have had exposure to intensive workshops and in-service training courses since the early eighties. The Senior Advisers for principals of Primary schools in the former NED have organised and offered in-service courses emphasizing the need for the development of skills. "It has been the policy for some years to wean the teachers away from their knowledge of content approach" (Mosson 1983 cited in Mathfield, 1993:169). In February 1991 the annual regional in-service course for principals of primary schools was hosted in ten centres throughout Natal. This course included an informal appraisal of the implementation of the SBA. Delegates were asked to reach consensus on the most common advantages and problems pertaining to the SBA. Responses recorded included the following

perceived advantages:

- i. A recognition of the inappropriateness of the content dominated curriculum.
 - ii. The realisation on the part of the teachers of the need for greater flexibility of approach.
 - iii. The application by teachers of child-centred, relevant and enriching programmes.
 - vi. Pupils more actively involved in the learning process
 - v. Increased pupil motivation and confidence when responding to curriculum demands.
 - vi. The promotion of independent and divergent thinking.
 - vii. The training of pupils in decision-making and problem-solving techniques
 - viii. Better preparation of pupils through the development of social and life-skills for the realities of everyday living.
 - ix. More meaningful and goal-directed teaching.
 - x. A focus on the teacher as a facilitator of opportunities rather than a provider of knowledge.
 - xi. Teachers more critical of ready made programmes, and exercises.
 - xii. Teachers widening their horizons via relevant studies and action research.
 - xiii. More teachers becoming involved in curriculum development.
- (Mathfield, 1993:171).

The NED teachers have long debated and attended courses on the SBA. Their perception of the SBA is largely favourable. They have taught historical concepts and skills in primary schools. The Ad hoc Provincial History Committee has decided that in 1995 standard 8 skills-based examinations will be written by all pupils in KwaZulu-Natal and that in 1996 common examination for standard 10 or grade 12 will be written. All history teachers will have to adopt this approach. This will put both the white teachers from the former NED and their pupils at an advantage. Already textbooks and other publications have emerged from teachers of the former NED which signal their dominance in the production of future locally-based history materials.

2.2.4 The International Developments and the Origins of the SBA to History Teaching

As early as 1970 in Holland, the Mavo Project taught pupils that historical events involved human feelings, emotions, insight and activity (Mathews *et al*, 1992:8). These pupils were taught that historical knowledge was a product of historians with specific emotional feelings, socio-political and economic conditions of their time, and religious persuasions. These factors

influenced their choice of material that they wrote about and therefore pupils were taught to realise that knowledge in their history books was never an absolute truths, to be absorbed and stored in their minds.

The facts of history, even those which in historical parlance figure as 'hard and fast', are no more than relevances: facets of past phenomena which happen to relate to the preoccupations of historical enquirers at the time of their enquiry (Postan cited in Tosh, 1984:114).

When new facts were accepted, old ones pass out of currency except in textbooks which are full of ex-facts (Tosh, 1984:114). Such views were the basis of a movement away from teaching historical facts as truths, towards a SBA. History knowledge had to include a recognition of historical terminology, relationships of cause and effect and existence of conflicting interpretations of history (Jones, 1973:166).

In 1971 Coltham and Fines, who were amongst the pioneering writers in favour of the SBA, argued that it was possible to analyze the nature of historical study as a separate discipline and categorize skills of vocabulary acquisition, reference skills, memorisation, comprehension, translation, analysis, extrapolation, synthesis, judgement and evaluation and communication skills (1971:4-5). This indicated that some British historians had already begun questioning the history teaching approach.

In 1972 the SCHP was launched in Britain. The British teachers were dissatisfied with the traditional content-based history teaching trends. The SCHP added three elements, namely, the public examinations, the position of history within the whole curriculum and a change in the existing approach. The rationale of this project was to meet the needs of the adolescent and have the subject taught as an approach to knowledge rather than a body of knowledge.

The needs of the adolescent were identified as an understanding of the world, personal identity through the study of different people in another time and place, understanding the process of change and continuity of human affairs, leisure interests and critical thinking (Nichol, 1984:24-25).

The project seemed to offer an alternative to the content-based approach. History was viewed as "a method of analyzing the past through application of particular skills" (Simchowitz, 1992:1). The project emphasised pupil activity in the learning process and it investigated ways of assessment of understanding rather than rote learning in the public examinations (Simchowitz, 1992:16).

It is clear that international trends in history teaching indicated a shift as early as 1970 to a SBA to history teaching and pointed to some recognition that history was inherently subjective. A historian could never get the full truth about the past, the best she could deliver was "a sketch of the vanished past" (Furay and Salevouris, 1979:3). The following section focused on some of the prominent history skills to address the question of what the SBA is.

2.3 What the SBA is

The SBA was difficult to define because the so called "historical skills" were not exclusive to history as a subject and as such it was not easy to understand what specific skills were being referred to in any definition of what the SBA is. For the purposes of this study it was decided that the definition of the SBA by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture (KZDEC)'s Ad Hoc Provincial History Subject Committee would be followed. The KZDEC in the 1995 Guidelines to standard eight defined the SBA as:

An attempt to move away from the domination of facts in teaching history to a method of analyzing the past through the application of skills and concepts. Skills acquired by pupils are based on reason and a spirit of enquiry.
(KZDEC, 1995:1-3)

This guide provided a skills circle to specify its major skills which included amongst others:

- (i) Empathy
- (ii) Analysis
- (iii) Synthesis
- (iv) Extrapolation

The skills listed above were selected for the purposes of this study. Coltham and Fines were

the pioneering history authors in favour of the SBA in 1971 in Britain, they argued that "important history skills include analysis, synthesis, empathy, vocabulary acquisition, reference skills, comprehension, translation and communication" (1971:4-5).

The study selection of the skills listed above was influenced in part by time limitations. These skills were referred to as major historical skills by KZDEC guide which also mentioned communication, comprehension, and evaluation (KZDEC, 1995:3). The above KZDEC definition consisted of "major skills" that had their own subsidiary historical skills that included the following:

- (i) Empathy : understand, beware, imagine, infer, reconstruct and hypothesise.
 - (ii) Analyze : observe, investigate, classify, select and interpret.
 - (iii) Synthesis : summarise, organise, analyze, generalise and reconstruct.
 - (iv) Extrapolate: analyze, predict, translate and infer.
- (ibid).

The guide suggested other skills to the KwaZulu-Natal history teachers which included recalling, sorting and classifying, labelling, sequencing, the ability to recount a story, recording skills, picture interpretation, time charts, mapwork, different kinds of evidence, giving reasons, causation, group work, research skills, analytical abilities, communication, observation, identification, organisation and accountable decision making. These skills featured in the ensuing discussions but not as part of the general definition because they included some of the skills mentioned in the main definition. It was acknowledged that in the process of exploration of the skills phenomenon, the study referred to the SBA on the basis of other definitions for instance in sub-section 2.3.2 which discusses "major" historical skills.

As mentioned above, different definitions were widely used in the skills-oriented debates and its literature included many skills, some of which were referred to as subsidiary skills in other lists and major skills in others. This could cause some confusion. However, skills were merely the tools for dealing with evidence. What could be argued to be a major skill might be determined by the nature of task and the evidence it had to deal with. It was also acknowledged that the study and its definition of the SBA was not divorced from the ongoing skills-oriented debates, and as a result there was a possibility of ambiguities which on their own were hopefully going to raise further curricular debates on the subject of history

teaching.

2.3.1 Paradigm Shift

Chapter one described history teaching in South Africa as largely content-based and pupils' roles as relegated to memorisation of masses of facts. This would change radically if the SBA were implemented as it would help teachers facilitate an:

Ongoing debate about different versions of the past particularly about evidence, where it comes from, how it was made, what people think it means, and why people using the same evidence can tell different stories about the past (KZNED, 1994:1).

Mathews and Nisbet argued that:

The skills acquired by pupils are based on reason and involves the critical use of source material. Pupils are encouraged to go beyond evidence to attempt to understand the minds and motives of people in the past by making historical inferences about them
(Mathews and Nisbet, 1994:1)

Historians, like archaeologists, worked with many tangible artifacts or witnesses most of them partial to reality. Inequities in the South African history amounted to more than distortions brought about by omissions and or inaccuracies in content. It was argued that if pupils were taught as if facts they read in books were absolute (see Chapter One), they would not understand that history was a process and not a product.

It is the way students are taught to regard the past and the discipline of history that ensures that they are fundamentally passive recipients of the historical knowledge and even where they sense that something is wrong, they do not know how to raise an effective challenge
(Kros, 1987:69).

The autocratic way in which history was taught, was one of the factors behind the positions of the advocates of the SBA in history teaching.

2.3.2 Some Prominent Historical Skills

2.3.2 (a) Introduction.

As South Africa draws closer to a major curriculum reform, history as a school subject will have to answer for itself as a discipline which can prepare young people for the world of work and leisure. Mathews and Nisbet considered the SBA as the answer to the question of

suitability of history in a national curriculum relevant to the needs of a modern economy. The SBA "is not an idealistic approach but a necessary and realistic policy for the future" (Mathews and Nisbet, 1994:2).

Before it was accepted that the SBA was a realistic vision a question of the "real educational value" (Deuchar, 1992:2) of the skills will have to be answered and teachers have to be convinced that the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial History Subject Committee had taken an appropriate decision to implement this approach.

The skills that children needed have to be defined such that when teachers used them they moved on to extrapolate from particular memorable instances and enable children to transfer the skills to other similar problems. When pupils left school with a host of skills acquired in the study of history they could be more efficient and successful in their lives in different ways: understanding human society, managing human relationships and working in social and political organisations. History knowledge has value when it is applied and if one has the skills to do so. Useful skills included:

The ability to think, to think analytically, critically, independently, logically, laterally, imaginatively and the ability to set down one's ideas in a coherent and comprehensive form (Coltham and Fines, 1971:4-5)

The processes and skills they acquired would help them at universities, post matric technical institutions and workplace (Bruner cited in History News, July, 1994). Despite such claims John Pampallis warned that if the skills argument was taken to an extreme, one might ignore the value of content and only see content as means of developing necessary skills (Pampallis, 1993:21). Pupils may not always relate to or empathise with the events and personalities as they were portrayed in the classroom.

The apartheid era concentrated on ideological content knowledge and discouraged critical thinking by only assessing memory retention skills which rendered an abundance of many other useful skills as useless (Maylam, 1991:2). The history content was a product of historical investigations and a process of investigation was more important than the product of that investigation (Maylam, 1991:2). Clearly historians distinguished themselves from

others in the way they deal with evidence.

The following section examines analysis, synthesis and empathy as some of the most prominent historical skills. The writer selected these skills, among other reasons (see 2.3), because of his belief that they were the most frequently featured in the DET external examination, in which the writer has worked for six years as a sub-examiner, yet none of these skills were observed to be deliberately taught by the teachers, or credited by the DET in the period of eleven years that he has been a history teacher, yet the DET history syllabus required teachers to teach these skills.

2.3.2 (b) The Skill of Analysis of Facts and Evidence

The skill of analysis of facts and evidence employs other skills such as vocabulary acquisition, reference skills and comprehension (Edinburg, 1975:40). Analysis was:

A vital skill of knowing in case of given information when it is appropriate to use other skills. Analysis employs other skills like interpretation, translation, evaluation and extrapolation
(Gunning, 1978:110)

This implied that in a given piece of evidence pupils equipped with the skill of analysis will be able to determine the specific skills necessary to deal with that evidence. Analysis was the "separation of a whole into its component parts and this process leads to a critical appraisal of both the parts and the whole" (Jones, 1973:176).

The skill of analysis called for pupils to be able to assess the authority of evidence, recognise bias, and relate it to historical context. Chapter One indicated that the external examination does not require pupils to show how they can apply acquired skills but only enquired about how much they remember about a specific topic (Edinburgh, 1975:74).

History gave pupils analytical skills by virtue of its contents. The historians searched for the truth from a quantity of conflicting and self-contradictory evidence. An historian must differentiate between a statement of fact and of opinion. Each source has to be studied and its limitations determined, its bias or prejudice appreciated, gaps in the evidence must be spotted and the historian must make hypotheses as to where to look to remedy the

deficiencies. This meant that pupils had to learn to work on documents or visual evidence or objects both in museums and in the classrooms and also in historical sites. As long as the status quo in history teaching in South Africa (see Chapter One) remained, pupils will only accumulate their historical skills unconsciously and accidentally by "virtue of history content" (Edinburgh, 1975:42).

It was arguable how much pupils could learn accidentally and unconsciously. What the pupils learned would be deliberately planned and taught to achieve specific goals and objectives. Pupils learned effectively if there was a conscious and deliberate effort and nothing was left merely to the nature of historical content, particularly in South Africa where that content was selected to suit the ideological and socio-political goals of the dominant society⁷.

The skill of analysis embraced the skill of evaluation. Evaluation implied the "use of some frame of reference and compares features of the material and a criterion or criteria" (Coltham and Fines, 1971:21). Jones also argued that evaluation required developments of frames of reference and demands the making of comparisons between material and criteria (Jones, 1973:180).

⁷ History pupils were given a task to make notes about why Mkabayi Ka Jama and King Dingane co-operated to assassinate king Shaka Ka Senzangakhona in 1928, that task will require the skill of translation. Pupils had to use their own words and some historical terms and interpret, why, in the view reflected in the book, did Mkabayi plot to assassinate the king. They would explain why Dingane accepted the plot to assassinate his brother knowing very well the consequences of his action should the plan fail. All terms of information would be evaluated from the point of view of their relevance and importance to answering the main question. The pupil made judgement about whether anything in the paragraph given was important in the answering of the question and decided whether and how the concept of co-operation applied in the relationship between Mkabayi Ka Jama and Dingane Ka Senzangakhona Ka Jama. This example indicated that the skill of analysis embraced other skills (see table 2.2) and that historical content could be understood through the engagement of a series of skills used in the study of history.

Evaluation was the skill of:

Distinguishing between valid and invalid conclusions, verifiable and non-verifiable information, and recognising contradictions, types of information necessary to support judgements, arguments or hypotheses, detecting logical fallacies and recognising the lack of connections or gaps in the evidence (Edinburgh, 1975:42).

Analysis also included the skill of extrapolation. If pupils were given a document or picture to interpret, in the light of other knowledge and they were asked to draw conclusions from it, to use what it contained to create hypotheses, inferences, and imaginative games, the pupils would go further than the information derived from the document or picture. The answer to an extrapolation question or an inference would not be right or wrong but possible or impossible. There might be several possible answers but a faulty reading of evidence would lead to the answer that was impossible (Gunning, 1978:82).

"The skill of extrapolation involves the pupils in making forecasts about how a given situation might develop" (Gunning, 1978:82). Extrapolation "requires imagination vested in reality and on account of all the available evidence" (Jones, 1973:176). Mastery of the skill of extrapolation would enable pupils to draw inferences after looking at information, feeling gaps in evidence and formulating reasonable hypotheses (Jones, 1973:176). Extrapolation enabled pupils to suggest relevant sources of information where there are gaps, make inferences from either logical or intuitive forms of evidence, draw and state conclusions, suggest causes and consequences of actions and events from hypotheses as starting points for further investigations (Edinburgh, 1975:42). Extrapolation encouraged more active involvement of pupils and makes pupils contribute inferences based on evidence other than the prescribed book or the teachers words (Steele, 1976:3-4)

TABLE 2.2 : The Skill of Analysis of Facts and Evidence.

<p>THE SKILL OF ANALYSIS</p>

Other Skills	interpret action of facts	Extrapolation of facts	Translation of facts	Evaluation of facts
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Different skills were discussed under analysis to indicate that this skill embraced others (see table 2.2). Analysis was one of the most important skills (Mathews *et al.* 1992:11). It refers to "the vital skill of knowing when to use other skills" (Gunning, 1978:10).

2.3.2 (c) The Skill of Synthesis of Historical Facts and Evidence.

The skill of synthesis had importance in the context of school and education generally. It involved articulating, evaluating and interpretation into connected written prose or oral expositions (Gunning, 1978:26). The skill of synthesis enabled pupils to organise themes or ideas to make a credible narrative. Synthesis was essential to writing as it involved summarising, organising, analyzing, generalising, and reconstructing. Writing was an important element of history learning and investigation. Despite the fact that 80% of the questions for external history examinations for matriculation candidates were essay topics, the SBA had not been encouraged by the DET. This was despite the fact that the skill of synthesis, if properly developed, could help pupils in writing better essays. All that pupils had to do in the external examination was to write the greatest number of facts, no matter how loosely connected, in order to pass moderately well.

The skill of synthesis "may be needed at all or several stages of study, from formulation of plans for an enquiry up to the creation of a product" (Coltham and Fines, 1971:20). Mastery of the skill of synthesis was not a prerogative of gifted history pupils. The students of various ability levels could develop and efficiently use this skill.

Jones argued that when synthesising, pupils produce accurate pictures of conditions, reject irrelevant information, used relevant evidence, gave reasons for conclusions accepted, evaluated various interpretations based on evidence and give their own opinions drawn from

reading a variety of sources (1973:180). Mathews affirmed that through synthesis pupils would be able to select evidence, analyze facts in sequence, use historical data to make imaginative reconstructions and to organise material of the past into a coherent narrative (Mathews, 1992:21).

In order to improve their skill of synthesis, pupils had to think in terms of making up a long piece of prose such as an essay by way of written exercises which grew slowly and more complex as the skill develops further (Gunning, 1978:129). In practising the skill of synthesis pupils might be taught and must show what they were ultimately trying to do and that the key to success was being able to generalise, being aware of it as a separate skill and having knowledge of the criteria applied by the teacher (Gunning, 1978:142). This view was useful when one considered that methods used by teachers were often their own tools that pupils know nothing about. Their role was to listen to long and mostly boring narratives and orders from the teacher who was the only one who knew the objectives of his approach.

2.3.2 (d) Empathy as a Skill in History Teaching

This section discussed empathy as a history skill without overlooking the fact that empathy was highly contested and debatable as a skill in history teaching, among history academics and teachers in the KwaZulu Natal History Forum, history meetings, workshops and school staffrooms. However the KZDEC had already included it among important history skills recommended to standard eight teachers in the guide published in 1994.

2.3.2 (d)) i. Origins of the Skill of Empathy

The word empathy came from the Greek word empathia which meant an active appreciation of another person's feelings and experience. The modern notion of empathy (einfuhling) was rooted in German idealism of the nineteenth century, "one of whose luminaries Wilhem Dilthey viewed it as an essential element for understanding history or any of the human sciences" (Simchowitz, 1992:92).

In 1897, Theodore Lipps, a German used the term einfuhling, translated in 1910 by Edward B. Titchener of Cornell University as empathy. Empathy signified a state in which the

observer projects himself into the object establishing identification between the object and herself and then engaging in a process of inner imitation leading to a better understanding and appreciation of the object under study. In 1926 Lipps extended his explanation to also include people (not just objects) (Simchowitz, 1992:92).

2.3.2 (d) ii. Empathy and History Teaching.

Empathy could be a useful skill in history teaching as this skill could help improve pupils' concept of time and enable them to understand that historical events took place at a particular time, date, month and year in a specific country with a unique culture, tradition and physical environment and that in order to understand history they have to imagine events appropriately and not interpret historical facts and evidence according to modern standards of their own time (Historical News, 1994:17).

It was "unhealthy and unwise that you can have empathy without knowledge" (Deuchar, 1992:3). The skill of empathy involved knowledge because characters or events that pupils empathised with were knowledge-based. The difference was that facts were viewed on the basis of factors related to historians who discovered them. Pupils arrived at historical empathy by harnessing the power of psychological perception based on intention and life experience and applying to them pre-existing historical knowledge and awareness (History News, 1994:17).

Through the skill of empathy the study of the past went "beyond the questions what, why, when and how into a contemplation of the intellectual and emotional life of the people who experienced the historical event that was studied" (History News, 1994:17). Empathy had to change from knowledge only, to the skills of understanding and application of knowledge (Jenkins, 1991:17).

Shemilt interviewed 156 fifteen year olds as part of an evaluation of the SCHP. He considered empathy to be best conceived as a hierarchy of skills including everyday empathy and differentiated historical empathy, and stereotyped historical empathy (Shemilt cited in Simchowitz, 1992:113).

Shemilt postulated in his developmental model the following five levels of empathetic understanding :

Stage One : The stage in which pupils see the past as unintelligible and view people of the past as stupid. They don't look at the past in terms of its different values from the present.

Stage Two : Pupils project their own personalities into the past and explain it without use of any evidence. This level is also referred to as "everyday empathy". The difference of the past and present are taken as proof of how stupid the people of the past were.

Stage Three : Pupils judge the past according to their own standards. They respond without appreciating the differences between their beliefs and values and those of another culture or age.

Stage Four : Pupils view actions, institutions and people of the past in terms of their own situations. This stage is also referred to as restricted historical empathy.

Stage Five : Pupils attempt to fit what is to be understood into a wider picture. They criticise a historical era according to their own standards, realising that these are likely to be different from those of the past. This stage is also called contextual historical empathy.

(Simchowitz, 1992:113).

What emerged in Shemilt's study was that it was often difficult for young people to sustain a high degree of empathy and when the highest degree of empathy was reached there were advancements and regressions in empathetic understanding. These differences were caused by the nature of the topic studied, period studied, and kind of personality that inhibits pupil response (Simchowitz, 1992:113).

In everyday empathy, students had to be taught that people of the past did not have the same ideas of right or wrong and taught to understand that their twentieth century motives, attitudes and feelings should not always be applied to the behaviour of earlier societies. Levels of empathy of pupils in the stage of stereotyped empathy assumed that all people living in a particular era had the same ideas, for example that there was one French view or one Zulu view. In differentiated empathy students saw that there could be a range of responses to problems within any group. Students should understand that people from a specific group sometimes have different ideas to their contemporaries (Potenza, 1992:47-48).

Some SBA advocates argue that history skills would be useful even when students were dealing with life issues in general. Kekane affirmed that:

Empathetic awareness could be a weapon to combat prejudice because when pupils with preconceived ideas are invited to inhabit less familiar ideas, groundwork is laid for understanding and tolerance of other peoples and cultures (Kekane cited in Simchowitz, 1992:113).

Simchowitz viewed the teaching of empathy as an essential historical skill and argued that:

If the teaching of history in this country was methodically biased in favour of the empathetic approach, the result might be better race relations and a lessening of social disharmony in our land (1992:113).

Futuristic empathetic skills would enable an individual to project into the future and be able to predict the consequences of his or her actions ⁸.

The focus of history couldn't be shown to pupils for direct inspection, that could only be understood by projective imaginative experience. People in the past could only be grasped by imagination, intuition and inference. This emphasized the importance of the skill of empathy (Mathews and Nisbet, 1994:2). It could be argued that pupils' interest in history was likely to increase with the further development of the skill of empathy as it will increase their insight into the past and understanding of the present. The teacher implementing empathy would have information about the character studied. He or she needed to have a certain amount of knowledge of individuals, their personalities, experience and outlook, the perceptions of the time when the character lived. The teacher had to be willing to attempt to enter into the past and engage with the major issues. When making use of empathy in history one was not only trying to involve pupils emotionally in the past but a wide range of skills were used. In an attempt to place themselves in the "shoes" of people who lived a long time ago, students often discovered the universality of problems facing societies through the

⁸ For example the developers of the atomic bomb lacked this skill. They confessed that the moral aspect of their invention was only raised after the bomb had been exploded. They failed to project themselves into the suffering of their future victims and the insecurity of the world (History News, 1991:5).

ages. It was often when students engage in empathy that they understood the relevance of studying the past (Mathews, 1994:8). The term "empathetic imagination" described the pupils need to be able to think pictorially, to imagine detail represented in abstract print and to imagine with authentic detail the historic reality. Pupils needed to place themselves in historical situations empathetically, to imagine by feeling or by being, since the human events they studied in history had emotional as well as pictorial context.

2.4 How the SBA could be Taught

2.4.1 Introduction.

This section indicates how the methods described in Chapter One could be used to empower pupils with intellectual skills used in the study of history. It focuses on the narrative, textbook and question and answer methods, largely encouraged by teacher training institutions. The main purpose of this section is to indicate that teachers' accumulated experience in history teaching could be channeled to achieve the goals of the skills-oriented teaching.

2.4.2 Question and Answer Method Within a Skills-Based Framework.

Despite the dominant use of this method as an instrument to drill content and ensuring regurgitation of that content by learners, this section will indicate some of the ways of teaching history skills through encouragement of pupils' productive answers to teachers' open ended question.

There were various types of cognitive skills pupils learn from different types of questioning. Knowledge questions enabled pupils to recognise facts, analyze questions, enabling pupils to examine reasons why events take place. Synthesis questions empowered pupils to create something new. Comprehension questions required pupils to explain what they saw in their own words, interpretative questions enabled pupils to compare or relate the evidence to their general knowledge in order to arrive at some historical significance. Extrapolation questions helped to encourage pupils to interpret evidence in the light of other knowledge and also helped pupils to draw conclusions, create hypotheses that ensured that pupils assemble evidence in support of an argument.

These examples given above indicated that this method did not only have to encourage reproduction of content as largely practised in history teaching today. Through questions, teachers could achieve active participation in learning, development of pupils' processes of learning and enquiry, and effective assessment of pupils progress as well as teachers own teaching.

2.4.3 Textbook Method Within a Skills-Based Framework.

Textbooks could be used effectively to teach historical skills. Many textbooks contained stimulus material in the form of cartoons, maps, pictures and diagrams which could be used during the lesson to develop the concepts of time, space and reality (Mathews *et al*, 1992:112).

Although most textbooks served the needs of the existing content oriented syllabus, teachers could organise these books to introduce the learning of skills. An example could be drawn from Kevin O'Relly, a high school teacher from Massachusetts in the USA who introduced critical thinking in his teaching. O'Relly recognised that one of the key concepts of critical thinking was the evaluation of argument, an important historical skill (Baron and Sternberg, 1987).

Using a textbook properly was a skill to be learnt by both teachers and pupils. Pupils needed to be taught reference skills to help them find information, comprehension skill to help them translate from one medium to another, and analytical and critical skill to help pupils categorize their reading and treat what they read critically and methodically (Garvey and Krug, 1977:59).

Textbooks had to be seen by teachers and pupils in South Africa as learning and teaching aids and not as the only means through which historical knowledge was transmitted. All textbooks had flaws and they needed thorough evaluation by the teachers to find out if they served the interests and objectives of a deliberate effort to empower pupils with historical skills.

2.4.4 The Narrative Method Within a Skills-Based Framework.

The narrative method was a popular teaching method. This method did not only have to be used to transmit content knowledge. Although it could be seen as being largely teacher-centred, historical skills could be taught through it. Stories told to pupils needed to arouse interest and the teachers narrative talent should develop to enhance efficiency of delivery of the subject matter. It was important that story telling embraced the equipment of pupils with historical skills to empower pupils to investigate evidence on their own, applying the acquired

skills (Garvey and Krug, 1977:132).

The narrative, question and answer, and the textbook methods were selected for a discussion above, this was only done on the basis that these were the most popular and content-centred methods that teacher education institutions encourage. Drama and simulation, play and project were pupil-oriented teaching methods which were discussed in Chapter Three.

2.5 The KZDEC Policy Decision to Implement the SBA in 1995

It had become almost certain that the SBA would be introduced in history teaching in the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa if not in the other eight provinces. Some 21 ad hoc Provincial Subject Committees had been established to examine the existing syllabus, identify inaccuracies in subject content, identify contentious subject content and its interpretations, consolidation of the syllabus where there was more than one syllabus per subject, considered implementations with regard to textbooks, set works for languages, examinations and teacher training and consider supplementary resource material (Bhengu, 1994:4).

KwaZulu-Natal Education Department under Dr. V. Zulu had appointed the Superintendent of Education and Curriculum Affairs of the former NED to be chairperson of the KwaZulu-Natal ad hoc Provincial Subject Committee for history. This committee produced guidelines for standard 8 history "towards a new kind of history teaching" (KwaZulu Provincial Subject Committee, 1994:1). Dr J. Mathews, the chairperson of the committee spelt out plans that all standard 10 history students from all education departments of the apartheid era including the House of Delegates (HOD) for Indians, House of Representatives (HOR) for coloureds, DET and the biggest which was the former KZDEC, would write the same external examination paper in 1997, a decision which was later changed by the National Education Ministry, to November 1996. Hence the preparations of guidelines given to standard 8 schools to prepare pupils and teachers for that external examination 34 months later. However this exercise was denied to current standard nine pupils who were to write a common matriculation examination 12 months later (in 1996).

The history subject committee as well as other committees had to conduct a situation analysis and collect information on the educational programmes currently offered in KwaZulu-Natal schools. The Provincial Subject and Phase Committees were requested by KZDEC to plan in-service training courses and seminars for 1995 for certain target groups which meant that the standard 8 history teachers would be attending these courses (Bhengu, 1994:4). Therefore the success of the introduction of the new approach relied on the efficiency of those who would be running the courses and the effectiveness of the courses to transform demotivated history teachers teaching pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds, quick enough to get teachers ready to start the new teaching methodology in 1995. This had not materialised by November 1995.

The national Minister of Education Professor S. M. Bhengu addressing the education managers and policy makers in the KwaZulu-Natal Province invited contributions and recommendations for change in the core syllabuses to be submitted to the Committee of Heads of Departments for preparation of advice to him. However the minister asked for recommendations limited to factual incorrectness of the subject matter, content which does not reflect sensitivity to different racial groups in South Africa and consolidation of syllabuses. This excluded recommendations on teaching approaches although the Minister acknowledged the fact that the current system of education followed "a pedagogic approach which fails to develop creative talent of our people and engenders an authoritarian education paradigm"(also quoted in Chapter One) (Bhengu, 1994:1). This statement challenged studies of feasibility of implementation of new teaching approaches particularly because those to implement such approaches the teachers still faced backlogs including lack or poor resource materials and facilities, and faced the problems related to the legacy of apartheid and their teacher education which was obtained in the context of the historic imbalances in the education provision in South Africa.

In May 1995 the National Minister of Education, approved the Interim School Phase Curricula which includes the Std 8 skills-based History guidelines for KwaZulu-Natal schools (KZDEC, circular no 3/95, 1995:1). On 22 August 1995 the circuit inspector E.Z. Miya of the Umlazi North circuit of the KZDEC circulated an invitation to "all std 9 and 10 history

teachers to attend a history workshop conducted by the KwaZulu-Natal History Forum on 2 and 3 September 1995" (Miya, 1995:1). In that workshop teachers were informed that the earlier decision that the common matriculation examination be written in November 1997 was changed to November 1996. Many teachers, particularly from the ex-DET, ex-HoR and ex-KwaZulu education departments expressed serious concerns and anxiety about the haste in which the new history approach (SBA) was implemented. Teachers also questioned the decision to schedule the common examination in 1996 when even 1997 was considered too early. Teachers were informed that this was not a provincial decision but it was a national and political decision.

2.6 Conclusion

Chapter two examined how the how this study defines the SBA and how the SBA came about. Chapter Three focuses on possible consequences of the implementation of the new approach in the South African context.

CHAPTER THREE.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE SKILLS-BASED APPROACH.

3.1. Introduction.

Implementation of the skills-based approach in KwaZulu-Natal was scheduled to begin in January 1995. The standard 8 interim syllabus was supplied to schools (although schools in Umlazi, the study population, had not received them by mid-March 1995). These syllabuses would be adjusted from time to time. Teachers and role players were urged to submit suggestions so that eventually the combined inputs of the KwaZulu-Natal region could be used to influence the drafting of a new National Core Syllabus for South Africa.

Successful implementation and effectiveness of the SBA to history teaching was partly dependent on the perceptions of role players such as policy makers and teachers. The decisions of the other 8 regions of South Africa on implementation of the SBA will also shape the final adoption. However, the SBA was unlikely to succeed if factors related to the legacy of apartheid in South Africa were not redressed and the imbalances in education provision were ignored.

On the basis of literature reviewed in Chapter One and Two, Chapter Three focuses on how the new approach will impact on content knowledge, its resource requirements and examine the challenges to teachers who have to be in the centre of the fundamentally changed teaching and learning environment. Data analysis in Chapter Six will also refer to Chapter Three to arrive at a conclusion whether Umlazi schools have characteristics that were unique and would be addressed by specific majors that were not indicated in a general literature review in this Chapter.

3.2. History Content Neglected.

A commentator on the British National Curriculum stated that:

During the years of the British Schools Council History Project, based on a skills-approach with a rather erratic and incoherent content, many educators began to develop a sense that the 'wicked skills merchants' had 'conned' the Empire with new clothes
(Kros and Vadi, 1993:101).

The history of South Africa was widely considered as biased and full of racism. If those content imbalances were not redressed and skills over-emphasised, some teachers would regard it as apartheid history teaching with new clothes. There was a concern that the emphasis on skills in South Africa could underestimate the need for content revision. "Many progressive material developers have preferred to emphasize a SBA and this may undermine historical understanding" (Kros and Vadi, 1993:100).

The history subject had to be defended against vocationalism and establish capabilities of challenging the hierarchies of the beliefs that school subjects should directly relate to specific working or career environments (vocational perspective) meaning that history would have to make way for more important subjects that will equip learners with working skills. As part of attempts to make history relevant, vocational perspectives ignore the nature of the historical content. The new approach to history teaching will be implemented at a time of a new era of democracy in South Africa when the new National Education Ministry had already called for recommendations for a new syllabus. Issues of factual incorrectness, content which did not reflect sensitivity to the concerns of different population groups and consolidation of different syllabuses into one syllabus were already on the agenda for change (Bhengu, 1994:1). History has been a political play ground for the past era of apartheid. Therefore content changes and political changes in this country had to go hand in hand. The introduction of the SBA to history knowledge should not be over-emphasised above content knowledge. "The debate about history as a process and history as a product is a false debate. By its very nature history is both" (Kapp, 1993:18).

If content was neglected and only treated as a means by which skills were applied, it would be impossible to help pupils to:

Appreciate how the present has evolved from the past, understand the idea of South Africa as part of the interdependent world, see the present as changing and changeable, love the values of democracy, non-racialism, and solidarity with the oppressed, and to understand the logic of argument and learn skills of research (Alexander, 1993:14).

The counter argument of this view could be that pupils could be taught to appreciate the past conceptually through the SBA without emphasising content. That would still leave questions of how concepts like democracy, non-racialism, and oppression would be taught in isolation and out of the context provided by the history content, without compromising deeper understanding by history pupils.

The implementation of the SBA could "displace historical knowledge from its central position and provide weaponry for discrediting it" (Deuchar, 1992:1). The theory of the SBA fitted in well with the ideas of Dewey which were dominant "in the ferment of educational ideas in the sixties and seventies" (Deuchar, 1992:2). To justify the SBA, skills advocates invented the myth that traditional history teaching was nothing more than rote-learning and full of contradictory history records. If skills were introduced and content was neglected the country and its collective experience down the ages would be lost "like a man who has lost his awareness" (Deuchar, 1992:1).

Deuchar warned against neglect of content but also neglected to mention the importance of the historical skills. Deuchar referred to the "historical record as secured" and that where there was doubt, this was honestly acknowledged. This view warned that South Africa should not teach historical skills to the extreme where history content was relegated to a position of insignificance (ibid). However the same view brought us back to the teaching of historical facts as truth. It could be argued that it failed to accommodate the possibility of a discovery of new information related to old factual knowledge.

Advocates of the SBA claimed that it equipped pupils to enquire through content which was tightly structured and presented as a problem. The pupils were taught the skills of an

historian and these skills also overflow into other subject areas. Content had dominated the history syllabus and:

Where a subject has a syllabus in which content plays a predominant part, the selection and organisation of content and pace of work are likely to be based on elitist principles and the teaching methods tend to be hierarchical in nature (Jones, 1973:12).

Little wonder the content-based syllabus had been a distinguishable characteristic together with teacher-centred methods in South Africa. Often the pupils and teachers own experiences of schools and thus their role models would have used content-based and teacher-centred approaches. The new approach would be challenging an old order firmly entrenched in the minds and experiences of both teachers and pupils. A beginning had to be made and the socio-political changes in the South African society made the transitional period from apartheid to ideal democracy a great opportunity for changes in every aspect of education. The question was still that of the educational value of skills. There was no evidence of the extent to which skills impacted on competence of an individual in dealing with other subjects and life in general.

Pampallis viewed a balance between skills and content as essential in giving school history increased legitimacy (Pampallis, 1993:21). If history neglected to equip pupils with relevant content knowledge and only concentrated on historical skills, the SBA would be viewed by some teachers and pupils as a hindrance to the redress of the past content imbalances, and it would meet with resistance and cost South Africa its memory and awareness.

3.3. Fundamentally Changed Teaching and Learning.

The ad hoc Provincial Subject and Phase Committees have been asked by the KwaZulu-Natal Project Task Group (PTG) for Educational Programmes, to plan in-service training courses and seminars to enhance the implementation of the new curriculum and the quality of teaching and learning. The Provincial History Committee planned to re-educate teachers of history through these courses and seminars to enable them to implement the SBA effectively.

Most History teachers had spent years in teacher training institutions studying content-based and teacher-centred approaches. After successful completion of these courses, teachers went into the teaching field where they acquired years of experience in teaching content and in all these years pupils have learnt to cope with rote-learning of the content and successfully reproduced that content to pass previous examinations. The fundamentally changed teaching-learning situation will challenge both teachers and pupils to adjust.

There was a problem of quality teacher education. Hofmeyer and Jaff argued that:

The quality of teacher education and education generally must improve, redress inequalities and develop the skills and approaches if the South African government wishes to invest successfully in the development of its teachers. All that must accompany an adoption of a developmental approach to in-service training which situates restructuring and progress of education and society. In-service training must be linked to wider change strategies in education and society (1992:197).

If the in-service training courses that teachers would attend were to be successful, they needed to accompany redress of existing inequalities in education. However if one observed changes taking place in education it was clear that the practical impact will be long-term. A fundamentally changed teaching and learning approach without fundamentally changing the inequalities and other legacies of apartheid in schools, would undermine the approach and lead to its rejection by history teachers from disadvantaged schools who would be aware that their white colleagues in former white schools continued to teach successfully through an approach they have long been familiar with.

In view of the context within which black teachers operated it was difficult to teach history skills to children. "Typically black teachers have a poor command of English language as a result of the Bantu Education System which was enforced from 1953 to 1979" (Hofmeyer and Jaff, 1992:172). They were English second language speakers and their linguistic capabilities would determine the extent of their success in teaching and the development of pupils' skills. Since the launching of the SCHP in Britain, skills have been taught to predominantly first language speakers. For the first time in the history of the SBA, it would be implemented by second language English speakers teaching second language pupils from largely

disadvantaged backgrounds in a third world country. The SBA demanded a reasonable command of the English language, putting teachers and pupils in a fundamentally changed environment, teaching and learning. The question of teacher readiness to implement this approach given the unique circumstances in which they would be operating and the "fundamental pedagogics theory of teaching they use" (O'Connel, 1993:38) could not be simply brushed away.

Deuchar referred to the British traditional history teaching experience that pupils with genuine interest in history were dismayed to find themselves judged in skills and no longer on the "narrative analysis, insight, coherence, judgement, and felicity of expression" (Deuchar, 1993:12). Historical skills were considered by advocates of the SBA as not only essential to historians but important across the curriculum therefore even if some pupils may not be historians in future, intellectual skills acquired may still be useful in their careers and life in general. Whatever the foreseen problems of implementation were, the SBA had to be encouraged as "research suggests that young children are capable of genuine historical problem solving" (Mathews and Nisbet, 1994:1). In South Africa there was not much that was done to improve history teaching in the past. The new curricular changes awaiting South Africa needed relevant expertise to implement them. Most teachers still lacked that, and they would find it difficult to deal with the new teaching-learning situation. Pupils might find it difficult to adjust and to be examined on skills but, arguably, once they were empowered with these skills their confidence would grow.

In Britain, after the inception of SCHP many exercises were developed as a means of developing and utilising the skills relevant to the historian. But, "these exercises were a means to an end, if used too frequently they can become self-defeating" (Jones cited in Fines, 1983:30). If a history lesson became a series of problems in investigation it would lose its coherence and its existence. It was understandable that these investigations would lead to pupils acquiring a series of useful skills. However history was a story to most pupils especially in South Africa where the narrative method of presentation was one of the most popular methods encouraged by teacher-education institutions (see Chapter One). Therefore the shift to the SBA had to move gradually to accommodate the history of how the subject

was taught in the past.

The NED teachers attending the 1991 regional in-service course for primary school principals reached agreement on common advantages and problems pertaining to the SBA and they recorded the following perceived difficulties:

- (i) The restrictiveness of content dominated formal curricula.
 - (ii) The "suddenness" of the increased emphasis on a skills-based approach.
 - (iii) Limitations concerning the necessary teaching skills and expertise required due to inappropriate pre- and in-service training.
 - (iv) Lack of "cohesive vision" as to the meaning of much terminology in use in relevant literature.
 - (v) Uncertainty as to appropriate lists of skills.
 - (vi) Lack of confidence in locally compiled lists.
 - (vii) A feeling of being swamped by the vast lists of, often insignificant, skills as provided in official documentation and available in relevant literature.
 - (viii) A tendency to become "bogged down" with minor sub-skills at the expense of important macro processes.
 - (ix) The tendency due to the need "to serve" extensive check-lists to apply skills out of context.
 - (x) Inability of many teachers, when confronted with the wide ranging examples available in official documentation, to compile concise check-lists of skills relevant to their own particular situations.
 - (xi) A loss of spontaneity and flexibility of approach due to check-list dominated teaching.
 - (xii) Unavailability of appropriate programmes.
 - (xiii) Inconsistency of approach and expectations within school leading to a break down of continuity.
 - (xiv) The difficulty of meeting the demands of the school's rigid formal assessment system.
 - (xv) Initial problems experienced by pupils who are unused to co-operative learning procedures and techniques.
 - (xvi) Many teachers find it difficult to understand the cognitive processes involved.
 - (xvii) Lack of practical background often leads to unrealistic expectations of pupils, resulting in demotivation and disillusion on the part of teachers, when faced with the failure of programmes.
 - (xviii) Lack of relevant experiential training results in the inability on the part of teachers to plan appropriately.
 - (xix) The demotivating influence of some teachers 'who, steeped in traditional methods, disagree with any movement away from a purely content oriented curriculum.
- (Mosson, 1989:342-343 cited in Mathfield, 1993:172).

These difficulties outlined by former NED teachers were likely to be experienced by teachers in disadvantaged communities to a much greater extent, if the new history falls into the "insensitive and unskilled hands" (Deuchar, 1993:12) of the unprepared teacher.

A survey conducted by B.J. Vosloo reported that the beginner teachers produced by historically white colleges of education were unable to fulfil the requirements of the SBA (Vosloo, 1990 cited in Mathfield, 1993:172). Restructuring of programmes at teacher education institutions seemed crucial if success was to be achieved in transforming traditional teaching strategies.

The KwaZulu-Natal region was largely rural and it consisted of many farm schools. Therefore, if the implementation of the SBA faced problems in former NED schools that were historically advantaged, it should be expected that urban township schools and farm schools would find it almost impossible to implement the decision of the ad hoc Provincial History Committee. This raised concerns about the quality and quantity of in-service training that teachers needed before they were able to implement the new history effectively. The Department of Education through the Provincial History Committee had decided that teachers would attend some courses and then go on to implement the SBA. Therefore the decision was based on the hope that in-service training would deliver good results. The personnel to conduct these courses, the comprehensiveness and the extent of these in-service training courses was of crucial concern. The KZDEC decision to implement the SBA was based on extremely high expectations.

The British experience indicated that implementation of a new history curriculum was complex. It aroused resistance. Although the philosophical underpinnings of the UK should be followed, initiatives to produce simpler and workable models in South Africa have to be examined (Mathews and Nisbet, 1994:1). New materials have to be produced and old ones updated "Everything depends on the preparation of the exercise, its place in the developing teaching pattern and the purpose for which it is created" (Jones cited in Fines, 1988:30). The fact that black teachers would be using this approach for the first time meant that the materials would be prepared for them and not by them. That would perpetuate the past since

most materials in use in black schools were written from perspectives other than those of historically disadvantaged communities.

3.4. Inadequate, Inappropriate and Unequal Teaching and Learning Resources.

To provide context to the discussion on the capacity of the South African economy to deliver the necessary education resources conducive to profitable implementation of the SBA this sub-section refers to the following economic background :

South Africa was not one of the wealthiest countries in the world. It was an average country with an average ranking economy.

Its Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita is about \$1 900, which in the world economic ranking puts it with Yugoslavia, Mexico, Malaysia, Portugal, Uruguay, Chile and Brazil, somewhat in the middle of the pack (Sunter cited in Hofmeyer and Buckland, 1992:33).

The amounts required to equalise education to the level of whites was such that this was extremely difficult to attain because of competing claims on the budget and effects of economic recession and rising pupil numbers (Hofmeyer and Buckland, 1992:34).

Since 1981 the NED History Subject Committee had noticed that the source materials selected for study were exclusive to British history and that no South African material was as yet available from publishers and that lack of test and exercise material was a problem. Locally developed materials emerged but those materials were targeted for a small group of white NED history pupils and were not necessarily suited for the new era in terms of the perspectives they used. The British SCHP required expensive resources which the NED could probably afford in view of apartheid government funding. But the new National Department of Education was not expected to have a surplus of resources in view of other priorities such as the RDP (Krige, 1993:41).

Mathews advised that:

Teaching resources must illustrate a point in the lesson and pupils must be guided in the interpretation and analysis, and teachers should not use too many resources in one lesson as this will detract from what is being taught (1992:109).

Children could be insecured with the SBA, they would not know what to do with many documents of evidence in front of them. They were used to one textbook and strong narratives. However Krige advised that teachers be given time to do surveys of alternative materials since "there are good texts one can use to build other texts, and a wide range of South African material that is ongoing and we don't know the half of what's out there" (Krige, 1993:42). This advice was applicable to NED history teachers who may have sufficient resources to be in a position to make choices as to how many resources to use in one lesson. The KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Education Department had to distribute available resources to all its schools and those resources were too scarce for the number of schools and pupils to be catered for. Therefore it appeared that the Provincial government had not considered the problem of lack or scarce resources. Documents were a central consideration to historians, but teachers were not teaching professional historians. They needed to be concerned about making the subject relevant to the educational needs of the learner (Jones, 1973:99). For large classes in schools in disadvantaged areas the teachers would still find it difficult to understand the educational needs of each individual learner.

There was a need of motivating teachers by providing for satisfactory working conditions. At the moment the morale of black teachers had been weakened by socio-economic factors and the ongoing political turmoil. This sub-section refers to the background factors that in 1987 the average annual salary of the black teacher in DET was R22 200 and R16 200 in homeland education departments. Black teachers were caught in the middle between the pressures of the pupils and community leaders on the one hand and the department and the political structures on the other.

Teachers and their associations have steadily become more politicized as they are drawn into the education struggle and the growing teacher militancy has been a feature of the recent years (Hofmeyer and Jaff, 1992:173).

Since the 1976 school upheavals, habits of learning and teaching have broken down which has resulted in a disintegration of the learning culture, loss of self-respect, tolerance, teachers morale and students will to learn (Hofmeyer and Jaff, 1992:173). Black teachers were largely not in a position to engage in such teaching activities as developing new materials and other teaching resources. A process of re-education in which teachers were to be taught to adjust to a new teaching paradigm was required. This would require more than simply attending a few courses, although the thorough and ongoing in-service teacher training process will begin to address the problem.

3.5. The Nature of the New Assessment Scheme.

Chapter One argued that the assessment of the subject largely determined what and how history was taught. The NED guidelines for examiners was discussed and was seen to be skills-based which in turn influenced the teaching of history in former NED schools. For the first time all standard 8 pupils were to be assessed using skills-based criteria. The present reality as observed by the writer (in eleven years of history teaching and six years as a sub-examiner) was that many teachers felt pressured to get through the syllabus, sometimes despite pupils rather than with them. "Higher achieving students and their teachers successfully play the system, the aim is to prepare for the exam with less concern for understanding and application" (Joffe, 1993:238). The new history will mean new assessment criteria. Bundy suggested an assessment procedure based on the following guidelines:

- i. Knowledge of the work of the historians and historiography which includes content that allows discussion of debated questions in history such as capitalism, apartheid and the cold war.
- ii. Using the concepts and procedures of a historian which includes content that allows students to practise the range of these skills using a variety of sources and documentary materials and becoming involved in different kinds of history such as archaeology, local history and oral history.

- iii. Problematising perceptions of the past including content that enables open ended problem-oriented assessment including themes such as struggle for and dispossession of land, capital and labour and nature of Cape Slavery. (Sieborger, 1993:215).

This links together aims, content and assessment, "the process of education includes the formulation of teaching objectives, designing teaching strategies and implementing them and assessing the extent to which the objectives have been achieved" (Mathews *et al.*, 1992:127). Asking questions involved marking responses to them. One major test of the SCHP was assessment of the mastery of skills in relation to the use of the evidence. The SCHP has been accused by Brown and Daniels of ignoring the fact that some pupils have the ability to regurgitate material in an examination but fail to understand the significance of the material (Brown and Daniels cited in Fines, 1983:94). This questions the ability of the SBA to assess all levels of mental capacities of pupils.

In the context of South Africa where the history pupils were assessed on their memory of regurgitated facts, it would be unacceptable if one were to consider pupils who only memorize facts as of lower ability because nothing other than memory retention was assessed. Pupils' learning strategies and teachers' teaching strategies were shaped by the external examination requirements of the past. However teachers have to smoothen the transition from content-based to skills-based assessment and the question of the readiness of teachers to do so comes up. The Project was accused of not testing historical understanding (Brown and Daniels cited in Fines, 1983:95).

The South African history education, with a fundamentally changed assessment procedure, will have to answer similar questions if the new history curriculum ignores content in favour of the history skills.

The future of the Schools Council History Project 13 -16 is suspect in view of the practical problems with large numbers, the methodological difficulties and the uncertainty of teachers in coping with the complex written and oral assessment procedure. There is too much confusion between the value of the project in the teaching of history and its worth as a method of assessment of history in schools (Brown and Daniels cited in Fines, 1983:96).

This analysis of the SBA was based on realities it faced in Britain, one of the seven wealthiest countries in the world with better economic resources and greater capacity to make the project work.

3.6 Paradigm Shift To Pupil-centred Teaching Methods

3.6.1 Introduction

Chapter one described the dominant teaching methods as content-based. It pointed out that the narrative, question and answer, and the textbook methods were encouraged by teacher education institutions. The implementation of the SBA would possibly influence teachers to employ the use of pupil-centred methods particularly if the matric external examination was reformed to incorporate the history skills.

This section will focus on drama, simulation and the project methods of teaching, which could be more popular than content oriented methods given the new context of pupil-centred teaching that SBA requires. It indicates how these methods could assist history teachers implementing the SBA.

3.6.2 Drama and Simulation.

There was no evidence that this method was dominant in history teaching but almost all teacher-education institutions encouraged this method. Because of that reason the writer prefers to outline possible uses of this method which could help teachers reduce their heavy reliance on the narrative, textbook and question and answer methods.

Varieties of drama and simulation included scripted plays prepared by pupils themselves and

sociodrama in which players sought to solve a social problem by means of simulation. Simulation was an open ended drama in which pupils assumed roles to solve an historical problem. The strengths of drama and simulation were that this method was pupil centred but the teachers should resist the temptation of over dominating pupils and dictation for "correct" facts to be the subject of the play.

An integral part of teaching history was an attempt on the part of the teacher to reconstruct or simulate events in the past. War gaming was one way of simulating military battles. Games had been devised whereby pupils learn about people in the past. Plays could be scripted or unscripted. The use of tape recorders may enlarge the scope of scripted history plays. A class may write or perform a radio drama which could then be presented and taped and used again with another class. This might be useful in rural schools where there was no electricity as the batteries may be used on tape (Garvey and Krug, 1977:95).

Simulation helped in the understanding of history as it was, rather than as it turned out to be. We had disengaged ourselves from the present and tried to live mentally in the past. Drama and simulation could give pupils a sense of uncertainty of history⁹.

Simulation and drama could be used effectively if managed in a structured way with pupils

⁹ The question of the cause of the Anglo-Zulu war in 1879, for example, could be understood if pupils simulate the situation of the Zulu King Cetshwayo and General Frederick Thesiger in the British colony of Natal who recorded in June 1878 that "it is still, however, more than probable that active steps will have to be taken to check the arrogance of Cetshwayo" (Oakes, 1988:183). Through an open ended drama pupils could assume roles to solve the problem of the specific cause of the war, for instance Cetshwayo's arrogance was not defined by Thesiger but preparations were underway to invade his kingdom. We know now what King Cetshwayo did not know then that the ultimatum delivered to him by the confederationist Sir Henry Bartle Frere (which was full of magnified minor border incidents and the incident of Sihayo ka Xongo's sons who pursued their father's two adulterous wives across the Buffalo river into Natal, seized them, and dragged them back into Zululand where according to Zulu law, they were put to death) was an excuse created to justify an invasion of the Zulu kingdom which was necessary for Frere to achieve his confederationist motives (1988:183).

being given an opportunity to build belief in their role over time and assurance that pupils have sufficient contextual understanding to be able to use their role effectively.

The history department at Redden Court School in Britain:

Developed a potential of their pupils, by involvement of these pupils in a curriculum development project in drama, encouraging pupils to develop an awareness of the complexity of human behaviour. This enabled them to develop insights into the way events affect attitudes, giving them a chance to explore the consequences of decision-making. Pupils were encouraged to become actively involved throughout the process (Eastdown, 1991:23).

If one considered the context in which teachers in South Africa were trained and the theory of fundamental pedagogics that underpins training they received one would expect confusion as to how drama and simulation could be implemented and still maintained the teachers "authority, superiority and trust" (Vrey, 1979:19). This method shifted the attention from the teacher to pupils.

Drama and simulation could be used by pupils of various intellectual levels because each child could be given a role that suits her own interest and mental capacity. In the United States, simulation was seen as a practical demonstration of some academic concepts which even the experienced teachers had previously known only in the light of their intellect, while participation in a game produced a depth of realism and a sense of involvement that had a great educational impact (Steele, 1976:58).

Although South African education operated in a different context, vast numbers of pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds would benefit from participation in drama and simulation because different roles accommodate different intellectual levels of pupils from any background, all depending on the nature of the subject matter.

3.6.3 Project Approach to History Teaching.

The project approach did not enjoy the popularity of the narrative, textbook and the question and answer methods. Like drama and simulation, the project method was common in teacher-training programmes in different teacher education institutions but the writer had not observed any regular implementation of this method. The project approach was regarded as a self-activity method of solving problems (Vorster, 1991:5). A project could also be referred to as a "community activity based on some special centre of interest which sweeps across a number of different subjects and aspects of the same subject, embracing something of each of them" (Mathews *et al.*, 1992:61). In a project pupils were required to do research set on a specific era or topic of history. The finished project should contain pictures, diagrams, maps, graphs, models as well as written text. Some teachers would use this method to cover specific content or factual information which might be useful for examination purposes (Mathews *et al.*, 1992:61-62).

Field-based projects were recommended for the study of local history which invited pupils to look at sources outside the library or local archives. Pupils learn that history was a relevant subject when they interviewed local people as valuable sources of evidence. It was argued that this approach motivated and involved students actively. It challenged teacher-centred learning and passivity of learners. In South Africa, where most history pupils came from disadvantaged backgrounds, the project approach was suitable because it did not require the type of resources that other methods needed (Gunning, 1978:109).

Pupils were not supposed to copy information verbatim but this could happen if teachers channelled pupils to content information that they considered as "essential" for examination purposes. The danger of the method was that pupils might copy long passages of material without understanding them and that it would continue to be a tool of the teacher to promote memorisation of facts. The overloaded history syllabus content could be a hindrance if teachers would consider projects as time consuming and not serving the purpose of drilling facts to pupils.

3.7 Conclusion

Chapter Three focused on the realities that the SBA will face on its implementation. Content neglect, fundamentally changed teaching and learning, the nature of assessment of the new history and inadequate, unequal and inappropriate teaching and learning resources, and a paradigm shift to pupil-centred teaching methods like drama, simulation and project methods. Chapter One also described the history teaching conditions in South Africa and in both Chapter One and Three one question looms unanswered: are the history teachers ready to implement the new approach? Chapter Four describes specific realities that impact in history teaching in Umlazi, where a case study of history teachers will be conducted to find out the answer to the question of teacher preparedness for the revolution in history teaching.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONDITIONS OF SCHOOLING IN UMLAZI.

4.1. Introduction.

The empirical study took place in Umlazi township, a black residential area outside Durban. There were two administrative circuits of schools in Umlazi namely Umlazi South and North with 29 secondary schools combined. Umlazi South Circuit achieved better standard ten results than all 25 circuits under the former KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture (KZDEC) with 64,4% passes in all grades in 1991. Umlazi North was the eleventh best circuit at 38,77% (KZDEC, 1991:64). The writer has taught history in Umlazi for the past ten years and believes that an empirical case study of history teachers in Umlazi schools, consisting of the highest and average circuits in matriculation achievements would give responses that although limited, would provide useful information from teachers in selected secondary schools, that could be compared to contexts outside Umlazi.

Chapter Four gives an overview of the Umlazi Township, its administrative background, the socio-political context of schooling and the state of history teaching.

4.2. An Overview of the Umlazi Township.

4.2.1 General Population and Administrative Background.

Umlazi township is situated some 17 kilometres south west of the coastal city of Durban in the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa. Umlazi was a rural area in the Umbumbulu district until 1962 when it was proclaimed a township in order to cater for people evicted from Cato Manor after it was declared a slum. It was divided into 26 units sprawling over approximately 4500 hectares of hilly terrain, and is continually expanding. The township was administered by the former KwaZulu government, a self-governing state or homeland of the Republic of South Africa. The total official population of Umlazi was 462 706, excluding shack dwellers who were estimated at two-thirds of the official population in the formal residential area (see table 4.1) (Umlazi Returns, 1994). This impacted badly on schooling

because children from the informal settlement areas had to attend the same already overcrowded schools. The registration of school children above the capacity of schools' floor space rendered teaching and learning ineffective.

Each unit was represented by one councillor in the township council led by a mayor. The administrative duties were carried by superintendents supervised by the township manager. Because council elections in the township were only contested by the Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP), the township council was generally linked to the IFP and therefore councils did not enjoy public support beyond the IFP membership. When schools were vandalised or invaded by criminals, KwaZulu Police (which up to the 1994 general elections were under the IFP president who was functioning as Minister of KwaZulu Police as well as Chief Minister of the KwaZulu government) did not give their support and the township council was seen by ANC supporting local residents as ignoring any plea for services and repairs for vandalised property. This had a negative effect on schooling typified by insecurity caused by easy access by criminals to schools and an uncondusive teaching and learning atmosphere in classrooms. Broken windows and doors, stolen books, unhealthy sanitary services, and inadequate supply of water were features of most Umlazi schools, particularly those in Umlazi North, most of which were associated with the ANC aligned Congress of South African Students (COSAS).

TABLE 4.1: General Statistics on the Umlazi Township Population and Schools.

	HOUSING		POPULATION		
	Sites	Houses	Male	Female	Total
A		1975	10 334	11 502	21 836
B	2299	2014	12 699	18 951	31 650
D	1624	1254	21 947	26 988	48 935
E	1742	1636	16 240	17 311	33 551
F	3055	2257	23 221	46 437	69 658
H	1966	1882	10 156	12 126	22 282
K		2034	12 932	14 172	27 104
L	2830	2517	16 976	25 761	42 737
N	2184	1370	13 465	20 499	33 964
P	2316	2004	32 414	41 888	74 302
T		1309	9 024	57	9 081
U		1747	9 389	10 142	19 531
A A		2066	9 055	19 020	28 075
T O T A L	18 016	24 065	197 852	254 854	462 706

Annual return of population and housing for March 194 for Umlazi Township. NB. The population figures exclude shack dwellers.

There was a distinct shortage of houses. The shack settlements surrounding the town and the number of backyard shacks in the township were evidence of this. Schooling was not conducive for children from such an environment.

Umlazi had been relatively free of strife except for sections Z, T, Q and a shack settlement called "Uganda". Reasons given for this were diverse. The township population was predominantly Zulu speaking and therefore fairly homogeneous. Another argument suggested that people were from a diverse range of places with differing viewpoints, and it was therefore difficult to mobilise any one group for a particular cause, and yet another explanation suggested that Umlazi was relatively well off compared to other townships under the former self-governing KwaZulu Government (Census 1990).

4.2.2 Schooling in Umlazi.

There were 80 schools in the Umlazi Township. Post-matriculation institutions included a technikon, a university, an apprentice training institution and a college of education. There was also a school for the mentally retarded.

Out of the 80 schools, 31 of them were junior primary schools, 16 were senior primary schools, 8 were secondary schools, 4 were combined primary schools, 8 were junior secondary schools, 1 was a combined secondary school and 12 were high schools (KZDEC, Umlazi North, 1993).

Umlazi North administered 48 schools and Umlazi South controlled 32 schools. What separated these two circuits was the Mangosuthu highway which stretched between Glebelands and the Railway hostels through the industrial area past Prince Mshiyeni Hospital, King Zwelithini Stadium, Sections D, M, L, J, and K, until the entrance to Ngonyameni area which fell under the Umbumbulu district circuit. In March 1995 the KZDEC proposed eight regions namely; North Durban, South Durban, Port Shepstone, Pietermaritzburg, Ladysmith, Vryheid, Ulundi, and Empangeni. The South Durban region consisted of six districts and twenty five circuits with 590 schools. Umlazi North And South were proposed to be districts consisting of their own circuits. If this proposal were to be adopted, Umlazi Schools would be divided into separate administrative components and would remain largely as present (Project Task Group, PTG Boundaries, March 1995:2).

4.2.3 Political Context of Schooling in Umlazi.

Wilson and Ramphela argued that national problems (that also included Umlazi) were related to the political economy of South Africa as follows:

The political economy of apartheid created a situation in African schooling which is characterised by inadequate facilities, under-qualified teachers, high teacher pupil ratios, high failure and drop out rates, poorly prepared students and a drastic shortage of classroom space (Soobrayan, 1991:13)

These problems outlined in the quote above applied in Umlazi, where the conditions were worsened by the 1985 school boycotts in which students demanded recognition of the Students' Representative Councils (SRCs) which set the stage for a collision course between the students and the Bantustan authorities who were trying their best to control their homelands (Soobrayan, 1991:13). The student demands nationally, and in Umlazi, in particular were voiced by COSAS and these demands included :

- scrapping of the prefect system;
- an end to corporal punishment;
- an end to sexual harassment;
- supply of free textbooks and stationery;
- scrapping of age limit laws;
- removal of the South African Police (SAP) (or the KwaZulu Police in Umlazi) and the South African Defence Force (SADF) (Thusi, 1993:23).

In Umlazi all eighty schools were administered by the former KZDEC whose Minister, Mr L. Mtshali, was a member of the NEC of the IFP and was constantly in political conflict with COSAS leadership and even that of the Umlazi Branch of the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU).

After the assassination of Victoria Mxenge (at her Umlazi home), a popular United Democratic Front (UDF) political activist and wife of previously assassinated Griffiths Mxenge, a human rights lawyer, students' protests led to violent confrontations with Amabutho, most of whom were seen by ANC local residents as Inkatha vigilantes. This had a direct and disastrous impact on general schooling in Umlazi from 1985 to date (Soobrayan, 1991:13).

The extent of violent confrontations between Inkatha and the Congress of South African Students (COSAS) in Umlazi can be measured in terms of the nature and extent of political conflict in Natal (Bennet and Quin cited in Soobrayan, 1991:14-15).

What worsened the situation in Umlazi schools was the perception by COSAS and SADTU that those in the administration of schools, including inspectors and principals were loyal to the Inkatha. This widened the gap between school administrators and COSAS students. Teachers were, and continue to be caught in the middle and are powerless to intervene.

Many school inspectors and principals were considered by Nzimande and Thusi to be members of Inkatha. Winnington Sabelo, the late and former MP for Umlazi in the KwaZulu Legislative Assembly, was quoted as saying to teachers at Umlazi in September 1989 that:

By virtue of being employees of the former KwaZulu Government you are all members of Inkatha and those teachers who questioned this were traitors. In future only Inkatha members will be employed
(Sabelo quoted in Nzimande and Thusi, 1991:13).

In 1988 the KZDEC introduced Education liaison Committees (ELCs) in those circuits which were regarded as troublesome. Umlazi North and South were some of these circuits. The aims of these ELCs was the maintenance of law, peace and order in schools. These committees were headed by alleged warlords. Mfeka, a member of the Inkatha Central Committee who became a chairperson of the ELC. There was clearly a reason for the hostility between COSAS and the ELCs. Some ANC followers condemned the ELCs and accused education administrators of suppressing COSAS in order to enhance the Inkatha Youth Brigades in Umlazi schools.

Inkatha tries to assert itself at school level through the establishment of the Inkatha Youth Brigade branches in each school. The Inkatha oriented syllabus "Ubuntu/Botho" facilitated the formation of these branches while claiming to be teaching "good citizenship" of which teachers were forced to teach. Where such branches are non-existent due to student resistance, students in many schools unknowingly contribute 50 cents towards Inkatha membership fees as part of the total school fees. Schools that are regarded to be too COSAS oriented are targeted by KwaZulu Police who easily identify them through the colours of their school uniform. This is a cause for a call by COSAS that all Umlazi students wear black and white and not normal school uniforms. This was opposed by school principals and Inkatha oriented school committees. Because of the strong KwaZulu police presence, schools are being run under tremendous tensions and hostility (Nzimande and Thusi, 1991:13).

Nzimande and Thusi regard "Ubuntu/Botho" as IFP propaganda:

The KZDEC interprets the role of the DET syllabus of history as to cultivate "good citizenship" and they supplement the syllabus with the IFP content "Ubuntu/Botho" or humanness (teaching about humanity) introduced at the insistence of the former KwaZulu government. "Ubuntu/Botho" amounts to IFP propaganda (1991:13).

Thusi argued that "Ubuntu/Botho" was a pro Inkatha syllabus imposed in all schools under the jurisdiction of the former KZDEC (1993:71). His affirming view was that schools were instructed by the ex-KZDEC to establish Inkatha Youth Brigades and :

In an attempt to quell unrest in schools, the Department of Education and Culture, in KwaZulu urged schools to establish organisations to which pupils would be recruited. These organisations were controlled by Inkatha and they were known as the Inkatha Youth Brigades (1993:23).

The Daily News stated the KwaZulu Cabinet reason for the establishment of the Inkatha Youth Brigades as that "it had saved the schools from bloodshed and chaos" (Thusi, 1993:23)

Umlazi North Schools achieved worse matric results when compared to Umlazi South schools partly because of Umlazi North links with COSAS, ANC and Mass Democratic Movement activities which involved many students in the political struggles and continued confrontation between students and the KwaZulu Police. During the course of this struggle, school property was vandalised. Repairs and general maintenance of the schools was not done (Nzimande and Thusi, 1991:13). "Pupils in KwaZulu schools joined forces in great numbers with COSAS, particularly in townships around Durban, Pietermaritzburg and Pinetown. Schools were disturbed as boycotts and stayaways became common" (Thusi, 1993:34)

Tension between pupils and school administrators of Umlazi was captured in the response of one student who described his schooling history as follows:

I went to Zwelethu in Umlazi where I protested when teachers decided which subject groupings to choose from. The principal in this school already knew that I was an activist. I then went to register at Lamontville High School and it was closed in 1986 due to a class boycott. In the same year, I was detained and released the following year. In 1988 I went to KwaShaka High School in Umlazi where I was expelled again because the principal accused me of instigating students to demand the refund of school fees and also accused me of organising an attack on his car and house. I then moved to register at Egagasini High School in Umlazi (Nzimande and Thusi, 1991:13).

The example above could be argued to be a reflection of a combination of violence, political activism and poor academic progress at Umlazi schools.

Another problem of schooling in Umlazi was that of an escalating number of squatter settlements. Most primary schools and to a large extent junior and secondary schools accepted the children from the informal settlements. However, the original township schools were built to accommodate the expected number of children from a particular number of families in the vicinity based on the original number of houses planned. With increasing land invasions the number of families in the catchment area for each school increased rapidly. Classes had become larger than the original classrooms could accommodate. Teachers found it increasingly difficult to cope adequately with the large classes. The complicating factor was that land invasions often encroached into school properties which reduced the ability of the schools to expand.

Most of the squatter settlements of Umlazi are ANC strongholds. It is unlikely that the Inkatha linked Township Council would make a contribution to development of the squatter settlements. The Umlazi township manager's office is also dominated by Inkatha since the staff is appointed by IFP elected councillors (Townsend, 1991:158).

Townsend alleged that since no help was given by IFP councillors to ANC squatters, health standards deteriorated and tension increases. This contributed to deteriorating standards of schooling in Umlazi as children from these squatters learnt in the same schools with township children thus bringing political tension into schools (1991:158).

4.2.4 History Teaching in Umlazi.

History teaching in Umlazi should be viewed in the light of the general schooling conditions outlined above. History was a highly politically contested school subject. The Education Authorities for years tried to exercise a strong measure of control. An example of this was that there was only one history workshop for KwaZulu history teachers in ten years, which was held at Esikhawini College of Education, in June 1991. In that workshop, emphasis was on themes to be assessed by the DET external examination. The external examiners who conducted the workshop, Grobber and Vrey for South African and general history respectively, insisted on no deviations from questions related to the examination and no discussion of other issues of the subject were tolerated.

The KZDEC was the largest of all homeland education departments, and therefore had a large majority of history teachers. Failure by both the DET and KZDEC to organise workshops and initiate history teachers' associations when the matriculation history results were so poor could be argued to indicate that the history subject in South Africa was a political playground of which the role of the history teacher was undermined by the DET. The only role that teachers were expected to play was to teach certain facts and not others. Umlazi teachers had no history association and the same applied to all other schools under the former KZDEC. Formal contact between history subject teachers was non-existent. Teachers operated as individuals in their own schools. The only time teachers met others was at the marking centre in Pretoria where those appointed as sub-examiners at the approval of the Umlazi Circuit Inspectors were given a marking memoranda. The memorandum provided guidelines discussed above (see Chapter One).

4.3 Conclusion

The overview of the Umlazi township indicated that the general schooling conditions were not favourable for effective teaching and learning. These conditions could be traced back from the socio-political problems in the communities surrounding the schools. History teachers operated at individual capacities without any links with other teachers in any formal or visible informal ways. There was no history teachers' association, history courses and or in-service training for history teachers at the time of writing.

CHAPTER 5

THE FINDINGS OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Five outlines the research methodology, explaining what the research tool was, how the data was collected, and what the study sought to find out. The chapter specifically reports on findings related to formal qualifications of the Umlazi history teachers, how they teach the subject, their preferred methods, methods used to cope with content volume, methods used to cope with the examinations, whether they teach the historical skills as prescribed in the syllabus, and the teachers' perceptions of the SBA. This chapter also reports on teacher proposals to improve the history subject and the new history curriculum. In an analysis of these findings in Chapter Six, the study will arrive at a conclusion on teacher readiness to implement the SBA and to determine the conditions needed to viably implement the approach.

5.2 Research Methodology

When the empirical study began in September 1994, it was focused on the Provincial decision to implement the SBA in 1995 at standard 8 level in order to prepare for the common examination for all the matric pupils in 1997. Urgency in implementing the SBA became more pressing since history teachers were informed in September 1995 that the common examination for the standard 10 pupils would be written in 1996, a year earlier than it was initially scheduled.

By the time the teachers were informed of the year of the first common matric examination it was already clear that the 1995 date of SBA implementation had not materialised. Despite this the officials insisted on a skills-based history common matriculation examination in 1996, although they admitted that it might be necessary to broaden the scope of the examination to accommodate all schools by setting both the skills-based and the content oriented questions.

The questionnaire was used as a research tool (see Appendix A and B). It included open-ended and closed questions. Questions enquiring about what teachers do included asking if

teachers teach specific skills and how they teach some popular examination questions. To find out problems that history teachers encountered, questions included the time available to teach, their likes and dislikes, how teachers dealt with the amount of content in the syllabus, whether the aims of the syllabus were realistic and whether their workload and classes were manageable. To determine teachers' familiarity and perceptions of historical skills, questions were included which probed whether they thought specific skills were necessary, arranging syllabus aims according to their importance in teachers' daily lessons, and what skills would be necessary to equip pupils to pass the external examination. General questions about teachers' professional qualifications, dominant methods of teaching in their classes, and how teachers wished to improve the subject and the curriculum were also asked. Chapter Two indicated that the study definition of the SBA included analysis, empathy, synthesis, and extrapolation, among a series of other skills (see 2.3). In addition to the KZDEC guide to standard eight history teachers referring to the above as major skills, these were also considered as the skills which featured most in the former DET's external examination history papers and it was thought that teachers would be familiar with them particularly the skill of analysis. Extrapolation was included because it was considered an important part of analysis (see 2.3.2), and the skill of synthesis was made part of the questionnaire because 80% of the questions asked to matriculation candidates were essay questions that required enormous ability of candidates to summarise large quantities of factual material available in their sources. Critical thinking was also included as a "popular" skill which was highly emphasized by colleges of education in which most teachers attended. However it was not explicitly referred to in the definition adopted by this study so it was mentioned separately from other skills in certain items but still considered an important component of the questionnaire. This would help identifying those teachers who may have taught some skills without awareness of any skills-oriented approaches.

The population of the study consisted of all 36 school teachers of history in Umlazi. Before the questionnaires were administered, similar statements were made.

Analyzing Teacher Inputs

5.4 Academic and Professional Qualifications for Teachers.

By qualifications the study refers to the norm established by the South African government in 1983 which declared qualified teachers as those with a standard 10 certificate and three years professional training (M + 3) (Hofmeyer and Jaff, 1992: 171). The teachers to be referred to as under-qualified were those without a standard 10 certificate but with one or two years professional training, as well as those with a standard 10 certificate and only one or two years professional training (see table 5.1). Unqualified teachers were those that had no professional teacher training. The so-called qualified teachers should be viewed in the light of the theoretical underpinnings of their teacher education, which were examined in Chapter One.

Table 5.1 Academic and Professional Qualifications for Umlazi History

Teachers

RESPONDENTS WITH/WHO	100%	NUMBE RS OUT OF 33
Certificates to teach history	97%	32
Specialised in history doing teachers' diploma	39,3%	13
Majored in history doing university degrees	39,3%	13
No formal teaching qualifications	03%	01
Up to two history courses in degree studies	18%	06

32 out of the total of 33 respondents (97%) had certificates to teach history. Of them, 13 (39,3%) specialised in history teaching in their studies for a teachers' diploma. Another 13 out of 33 (39,3%) majored in history in their junior degrees and some of them had studied post-graduate history courses in their studies for a university degree. Only one teacher (3%) had a matric certificate only. 6 out of 33 respondent teachers (18%) had passed up to two history courses in their studies for a university degree (see table 5.1). The fact that teachers

in Umlazi were predominantly qualified was not a reflection of the national trends. This could possibly be attributed to the teachers' accessibility to the Umlazi Extramural Division of the University of Zululand, University of Natal (Durban), University of Durban-Westville and the University of South Africa and its library facilities and those of the Durban city Council. In addition to these institutions there were colleges of education including Umbumbulu College, Umlazi College for Further Education, Amanzimtoti College, Ntuzuma, Edgewood, Springfield and even Mpumalanga Colleges of Education where most Umlazi teachers received their training. This concentration of education facilities were not available to the majority of teachers country wide.

25 out of 33 (91%) of Umlazi history teachers taught more classes and sections than any other subject, which a few of them teach in addition to their history workload. This reflected a fair degree of specialisation in history teaching in Umlazi schools (classes refer to standards(e.g. standard 10) and sections referred to groups of pupils in different classrooms regardless of standards). Therefore more than 90% of the sample were certificated and they all specialized in history teaching although a few of them also taught other subjects at a smaller scale.

5.5 Preferred Methods of History Teaching.

29 responses pointed out that the narrative method was the most consistent history teaching method in their teaching practice. 23 favoured the discussion method and 18 used the textbook method. Only 11 responses indicated some use of videos, and 07 for projects, 06 used drama and simulation, 06 museums and only 05 identified worksheets as a method drawn in during their own teaching. The discussion method cannot be grouped as a content-based method, and if the scores of the responses that were not necessarily teacher-centred were combined that is discussion 23, video 11, 07 for projects, 06 for drama and simulation, 06 for museums and 05 for worksheets the score becomes 58 which by far exceeded 47 for the narrative and the textbook methods combined.

However if the narrative method was compared to individual scores of each method it appeared as the single most consistent method in the daily teaching activities of Umlazi teachers as clarified when 10 respondents stated that their pupils saw a good history teacher as a good narrator. Typical responses were that pupils saw a good teacher as:

- (i) "one who comes to class with no book, one who sings facts to his class without referring to any source".
- (ii) "one who is a good story teller and who prepares notes for his class"

07 responses stated that pupils would like a teacher who stimulated pupil-interest and motivated them to learn. Whilst 06 stated that pupils would prefer a knowledgeable and informative teacher who reads extensively. 08 thought that their pupils would like a history teacher who related content to the latest events relevant to pupils environment. 04 respondents indicated that pupils would like a dedicated teacher who was competent and hardworking. A teacher with interest in the subject and one who didn't rely on the textbook got 02 responses respectively and only 01 respondent thought that pupils liked a teacher who developed their skills although no specific skills were mentioned to clarify this response.

The response rate was very low for the question on how certain popular external examination questions would be dealt with in the classrooms. 13 out of 33 did not respond to the question of how they would prepare pupils to answer "an analysis of legislation governing non-white affairs" and 26 respondents did not respond to the question on the "terms of the treaty of Versailles". In both cases respondents pointed out that they would drill and narrate relevant facts for pupils to memorize for the examination. Again the narrative and content teacher-centred methods were stated as the means by which teachers taught the historical skills, the exercises that required much pupil activity and less content emphasis.

5.6 Teacher Inputs on History Content.

TABLE 5.2 : Teachers' Likes and Dislikes in History Teaching

Likes or Dislikes	Teachers' Responses	Number
Likes	Responses out of 99 expected	37
Likes	Factual content educates	27
Likes	Improves political understanding	10
Dislikes	Responses out of 99 expected	66
Dislikes	Lazy, passive and protesting pupils	08
Dislikes	Overloaded + Eurocentric general history	20
Dislikes	Shortage, remote + outdated materials	08
Dislikes	Teaching in the medium of a second language	03
Dislikes	Memorisation of facts	03
Dislikes	Discrimination or ignoring female historic contributions	02
Dislikes	African history taught as a stage for European colonial activity	01
Dislikes	Biased S.A. history	16
Dislikes	Medium of English	03
Dislikes	History is difficult	02

27 responses pointed out that they liked history because its factual content educated them and "enabled them to know the past which informs the present which puts them in better positions to predict the future". This view was often expressed in history didactics books prescribed in colleges of education and was thus not considered by the writer as original. This might have indicated the influence that teacher training institutions had on students who went through them. For 10 responses history improved political understanding, and a few of them also liked history for improving their understanding of the contemporary events, and two responses among these ten indicated that history improves their skills, however they did not mention any specific skill.

On the question of what they disliked about history teaching, only 66 out of the 99 expected responses were provided. 16 out of the 66 responses indicated that they disliked South African history because it was biased and distorted. 08 disliked lazy, passive and protesting pupils who consistently failed their tests whilst 20 responses expressed dislike of general history because it was eurocentric and irrelevant to pupils' local environment. 08 expressed dislike for history because of the shortage of materials, such as textbooks which were not sufficient for their large classes, existing outdated resources and remotely located museums and historical sites. 03 responses disliked history teaching because it was taught in a second language (English) and pupils' poor language proficiency impacted badly on their understanding of content. 03 responses received disliked history for encouraging memorisation of facts whilst 02 considered history discriminatory against the female gender. 01 disliked African history because it was studied only as a stage for European colonial activity (see table 5.3). It should be mentioned that teachers stated 74 likes which were all about content and 130 dislikes still centred on content problems.

In Chapter One it was argued that the history syllabus was overloaded with content. When asked if teachers had enough time to teach history, 14 out of 33 (42%) stated that they did and 19 (58%) declared that the time to teach history was not enough. Some 17 teachers among those who said that time was not enough opted to give reasons for their answers. 07 of those who gave comments stated that they did not have enough time to teach because the history syllabus was overloaded with content. Typical teacher responses included the

following statements:

- (i) "Time is not sufficient. I would suggest that we teach on Saturdays".
- (ii) "Time is not enough. One teacher must deal with either general or South African history only".

TABLE 5.3 : Time to Teach History:

Have Enough Time to Teach =42% Not Enough Time to Teach =58%

Solutions (slts)	Reasons Provided by 52% of those wishing for more time to teach history	Numbers out of 17 of those who gave comments
	Content overload in the syllabus	07
	Too big classes for so much content	01
	Too many slow learners for so much content	01
slts	One teacher for either SA or general history	04
slts	Teach on Saturdays	02
slts	Extension of teaching periods	01
slts	Remove certain themes from the syllabus	01

01 had no time to teach so much content because of the size of the classes they taught, 01 had too many slow learners who could not cope with the content. 04 pointed out that one teacher must teach or specialise in one section, be it South African history or general history. 02 recommended teaching on Saturdays and 01 recommended that teaching periods be extended and 01 suggested removal of certain themes from the syllabus (see table 5.3).

TABLE 5.4 : Influence on History Teaching

28 out of 33 expected Responses	Respo-ndents
Own interest in history teaching	08
Exploration of historical events	07
Politics in general	04
Pupils' lack of understanding	04
SA political developments	03
Development of critical thinking	01
Inherent English lang. acquisition	01
Did not respond	05

28 out of 33 responded to the question on the identification of their influences on history teaching. 08 were influenced by their own interest in history. The other 07 were influenced by the knowledge they acquired in exploration of historical events. South African political developments influenced 03 of the teachers, 04 were influenced by politics in general and 04 were influenced by pupils' lack of understanding whilst 01 was influenced by the potential of the subject to develop pupils' critical thinking and another 01 respondent was influenced by the potential of the subject to increase one's English vocabulary (see table 5.4).

Some of the solutions given by teachers in response to what they would like in the improved new curriculum were similar to those they gave on dislikes in history teaching. 16 out of 33 pointed out that South African history should be freed of content distortions and bias and needed to include black heroes as well. One teacher, whose response typified many, said "It must be relevant and include things affecting the pupils and the history of their ancestors". 04 referred to general history as irrelevant and too much for the time available to teach it. It was seen as eurocentric and should be relevant to the South African environment. 03 suggested that history books should be written with sensitivity towards how

the Black people might view certain historical events, and 03 others recommended removal or improval of the history of the African continent. Recent historical events must be included in the new history curriculum according to 03 respondents, 02 others suggested relevance of both the South African history and general history to the local environment. 01 teacher stated that a new history curriculum will improve if all stakeholders were included in its development and 01 last respondent to this question suggested that history teachers need to specialise on either general or South African history.

The recurring theme from the general responses to content and specifically to the question of what needed to be done to improve the history subject was that of biased and distorted South African history which 15 out of 33 (45,5%) of the respondents mentioned. 06 (18%) suggested history workshops, seminars, and in-service training courses in order to improve the history subject, and 05 or 15% recommended teaching based on improving pupils' critical thinking, insight and activity. 02 or 6% favoured pupil-based teaching, the giving of more written work and encouraging independent study, whilst 02 others suggest improved teaching resources and 01 of each of the following thought that an integration of some history themes with other subjects, inclusion of contemporary history and more time allocation to increase the number of periods per history lesson would address some of the difficulties.

Asked whether teachers considered the aims of the syllabus to be realistic or not, 04 did not respond and 20 stated that the aims of the syllabus were realistic and only 09 said that they were not. A notable contrast appeared when the same respondents were asked if the aims of the syllabus were achievable nor not. 03 did not respond and 18 stated that these aims were not achievable and only 12 pointed out that syllabus aims were achievable. This contrast could have been caused by the fact that on paper the aims appeared reasonable but in practice the teachers are influenced by the demands of the external examination (see Chapter One). 13 of the respondents were satisfied with their own teaching and 17 stated that they were not satisfied. 03 provided responses that were unusable due to their irrelevancy and it appeared that this question was rather ambiguous because responses were not clear whether teachers were referring to their satisfaction or dissatisfaction regarding their personal efforts or the general working conditions in their schools.

5.7 Teacher Inputs on the external Examination

TABLE 5.5 : Responses on the External Examination

Ext. exams	Number of responses
Is the ext. exams testing aims of the syllabus? (content, skills and attitudes) Answer: YES	17
Is the ext. exam testing aims of the syllabus? Answer: YES (06 responses unusable)	10 of which 08 stated that only memory is tested
Is your teaching influenced by the ext. exams? Answer: questions for the internal examination are set according to the external standards	In 26 out of 33 responses: 12
Finish the syllabus in preparations for the final external examination	05
Revise examination question papers	03
Teach pupils to pass and get certificates	03
Teach for exams and understanding of content	02
Drill facts for memorisation	01
Did not respond	07

17 of the teachers stated that the external examination did test the aims of the syllabus (content, skills and attitudes). 10 asserted that external examinations did not test the aims set out in the matric history syllabus. 06 of the responses were unusable because of irrelevancy.

26 responses to the item on the influence of the standard 10 external examination requirements indicated that they taught for exams. General responses on that question could

be summarized by the following teacher responses:

"Revision of previous exam papers makes the pupils aware of the setting and answering of the questions at the end of the year".

and

"I teach according to the way examiners phrase the questions".

12 of these teachers stated that they set questions for internal examinations according to the style used by the external examiner. 05 were always occupied by a need to finish the syllabus before the end of the year in order to leave their pupils better prepared to answer any external examination question. 03 revised previous examination question papers and further 03 taught for the examination because it was only through the examination that pupils could get certificates required by post matric institutions, business and industry. Reality compelled 02 of the teachers to teach for the examinations but they believed that teachers should make sure that pupils understood what they were being taught. 01 coped with the amount of content by asking and encouraging pupils to memorize facts which was the only way that pupils could internalise facts to reproduce in the final examination (see table 5.5).

5.8 Teacher Perceptions about the Teaching of History Skills

The respondents were asked to rank the following in their order of importance in their daily teaching activities: content, skills, critical thinking, teaching essays, drilling facts and motivating pupils for examination. 20 responses rated critical thinking highest, followed by drilling of facts at 16, motivating pupils for examination at 15, skills at 15, content at 13 and teaching essays at 13 (see table 5.6). If it were considered that critical thinking was a historical skill the total will be $20 + 15 = 35$ in favour of skills. That places skills at the most important by far. 13 responded in favour of content but still an additional 16 for drilling facts gave content 29, which was lower than 35 the combined score of the skills items.

TABLE 5.6 : Ranking Historical Skills

Ranks according to the order of importance to respondents	Responses per item
Critical thinking	20
Drilling facts for memorisation	16
Motivation of pupils	15
Historical skills	15
Content and Teaching essays	13 each

When ranking attention to individual problems, monitoring and writing of notes, drilling of essays, marking, content and monitoring of skills, 26 rated content highest followed by 17 who opted for attention to individual problems. Monitoring the writing of notes was voted 15 times, the drilling important facts 13 times, marking got selected 12 times and teaching and monitoring historical skills chosen 10 times. Content got the highest rankings most of the times by the respondents.

The response rate to questions on the teaching of skills was very low. On the skill of synthesis, 07 did not respond and 17 did not provide usable responses because of their irrelevance. On the skill of analysis 12 did not respond and on the skill of extrapolation 14 of the responses were unusable for their irrelevance.

In the case of the skill of synthesis the response rate was only 12. 06 of these encouraged pupils to collect facts from different sources and then make summaries, 02 facilitate group discussion, the other 02 gave essays and assignments and 02 favoured questioning, channelled to equip pupils with the skill of synthesis.

07 did not respond whether it was necessary to teach the skill of synthesis. An overwhelming 22 stated that the skill of synthesis was necessary and only 04 considered it an unnecessary skill. Some mentioned that synthesis was too difficult for high school children.

12 did not respond to questions on how they equipped pupils with the skill of analysis. 07

gave assignments, long questions, and essays to equip pupils with the skill of analysis. Respondents did not make clear how they hoped to cultivate analysis through these activities. 03 asked oral questions leading to the development of the skill of analysis. 02 encouraged memorisation. 02 of each of the following responses stated that they encouraged critical thinking, deliberately taught analysis, and 02 pointed out that analysis was above pupils' calibre. 01 of each of the remainder stated they encouraged independent study, developed pupils' insight, and taught analysis through class discussion. 07 did not respond to questions on whether it was necessary to teach analysis. 21 responded that they considered the skill of analysis necessary and only 05 thought that the skill of analysis was not necessary.

TABLE 5.7 : Poor Response Rate on Skills Items

Historical skills	Unusable or no responses	Skills are necessary	Skills are Not necessary
Extrapolation	08 did not respond	22	03
Synthesis	07 NO response	22	04
Analysis	07 NO response	21	05

14 gave unusable responses on extrapolation. 03 taught extrapolation through discussion, 02 gave essays, assignments and long paragraphs. 02 of the respondents stated that they referred pupils to various sources, 01 of each of the following stated that they encouraged critical thinking, taught skills using cartoons, stuck to drilling facts for the examination, and the last one deliberately taught extrapolation. 22 stated that extrapolation was necessary and only 03 of the respondents regarded extrapolation as an unnecessary skill for school pupils (see table 5.7).

44 out of the 99 expected responses were provided on the necessity of skills to pass the existing standard 10 examination. Memorisation of facts was selected 10 times as the most essential skill for pupils to pass the matriculation examination. Synthesis got chosen 09 times, analysis got 08 times, critical thinking 06 times, interpretation of facts 04 times,

communication was selected by 03, evaluation of facts also got chosen 03 times and 01 respondent went for problem solving skills (see table 5.8).

TABLE 5.8 : Skills Necessary to Pass the External Examination

HISTORICAL SKILLS	Number of Selections
Number of selections out of 99 for 33 x 3 responses	44
Memorisation of facts	10
Synthesis	09
Analysis	08"
Critical thinking	06
Interpretation of facts	04
Communication	03
Evaluation	03
Problem solving	01

09 responses expressed that the history skills were relevant to other subjects and they saw commonalities between historical skills and languages. 04 combined history and geography, and 03 stated that they were totally unfamiliar with integrated teaching and so could not tell if historical skills were relevant to subjects they had never have taught. 02 pointed out that there were commonalities between history skills and every school subject.

On the most important aim of history teaching 27 responded. Of them 09 stated that history gave an understanding of the past, informed the present and assisted in making future predictions. 09 pointed out that history cultivated good citizenship, 04 defined the aim of history teaching as being informed about one's own environment and issues related to pupils. 02 learned critical thinking through history, 02 considered history as a valuable subject that taught mistakes about the past. 01 of the following responses stated that history aimed at teaching understanding of the world, teaching facts and political awareness. None of the respondents identified historical skills as some of the most important aims of history teaching.

5.9 Conclusion.

The responses of the history teachers of Umlazi revealed that the narrative method was dominant in history teaching. Their most prominent concerns centred on history content and overloaded syllabuses, bias and distorted South African history and Eurocentric general history. Given the background of schooling conditions in Umlazi (see Chapter Four) and the context in which teachers were trained (see Chapter One), the questions on historical skills received highly unexpected responses. Many responses on these items indicated that teachers considered the teaching of historical skills as important, although evidence did not indicate that they teach skills. It was clear that teachers were not familiar with the SBA despite indicating that they needed to teach skills once they had attended workshops to give them insight into the concepts and skills. Teachers also indicated quite clearly that their teaching was in accordance with the demands of the external examination.

Chapter Six analyzes the data described above and examines whether the implementation of the SBA was a realistic vision given the responses of history teachers in schools in Umlazi.

CHAPTER SIX**DATA ANALYSIS.****6.1. Introduction.**

Data collected and described in Chapter Five is analyzed in this chapter. The main thrust of the responses received from the Umlazi history teachers pointed to teacher education, content oriented teaching and teacher-centred methodology, assessment as a dominant influence on the teachers' style, and inadequate teaching resources. Data analysis will be centred on these themes, and also on literature reviewed in previous chapters which will include a discussion of the problem of the consultation process.

6.2. Teacher Education.

32 out of 33 of Umlazi history teachers had certificates to teach (see Chapter Five and Appendix). As qualified teachers it was expected that their views were informed by the theory of teaching they received in teacher training institutions (see Chapter One). But the general responses expressed interest in the skills-based teaching methods. Compared to national standards, Umlazi teachers were among the highest qualified black teachers.

Chapter Four examined schooling conditions in Umlazi and that reflected the difficult conditions under which Umlazi teachers work. Umlazi circuits performed well in the November 1991 external examinations for standard 10. Umlazi South got 64,4% which was the best percentage for all 25 circuits under the former KZDEC and that was far above 40,7% obtained by the DET in 1990. One could possibly attribute that success to better teacher qualifications amongst Umlazi teachers, although it could still be argued that Umlazi was a better resourced township compared to farm and rural schools furthest away from the scarce facilities that were available to urban townships. The question was how long would it take to re-educate these "apartheid educated educators" (Walker, 1990:62) (quoted in Chapter One to provide a separate view), who had achieved some degree of confidence due to successes achieved in standard 10 pass rates, into a new paradigm characterised by a skills-based history teaching approach that was pupil-centred. Some teachers might be

sceptical about new trends in history teaching and such people needed time and patience to be adjusted to new contexts. Courses and in-service training could help unqualified and under-qualified teachers who may be prepared to learn any theory that could give them their job security that they never had because of their poor qualifications.

In the case of "highly qualified" Umlazi teachers who were quite secured in their jobs because of their qualifications, it will be more difficult to have the SBA fully accepted and supported quickly enough (before the 1996 common skills-based history standard 10 examination) for implementation to succeed on schedule.

The matter did not simply depend on teachers' choice whether they accept the new history or not, as a decision had already been made by the KwaZulu-Natal Education Department which had accepted the SBA to history teaching. In consideration of the culture of learning and teaching that had declined, coupled with the culture of resistance among teachers, particularly those teachers who were members and, or sympathizers of the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU), linked to the ANC and affiliated to the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU), one did not see a smooth process of implementation of a decision by the KwaZulu-Natal Education Department. Another difficulty was the personnel to re-educate teachers. As it stands, it would appear that the former NED white teachers, who had already experimented for some years with the SBA would be most eligible to do the job. If that were to happen, a situation of whites "educating" blacks would emerge which may create an opportunity for agitators of racial conflict to use this issue to achieve the goals of their agendas.

The National Minister of Education addressed the KwaZulu-Natal Education Department and made specific statements related to teacher re-education. The Minister called for Provincial ad hoc Subject Committees (including the History Subject Committee) to "identify existing curriculum support material, and encourage schools to exchange materials or develop these together" (Bhengu, 1994:4). Bhengu further called for workshops, seminars and in-service training for teachers in the field. This raised the question of the effectiveness of these workshop programmes to help Umlazi qualified teachers to un-learn the undemocratic

teaching practices of the past and immediately learn the new pupil-centred and SBA to history teaching.

6.3. Content-Oriented Teaching and Teacher-Centred Methodology.

The study survey has reported that Umlazi history teachers used content based teaching methods, namely the narrative method (which was the most popular), textbook and discussion methods. Item 6. (See appendix A) asked how the respondents thought that their pupils would describe a good history teacher. 10 out of 33 teachers answered that their pupils would consider a good narrator as the best teacher. This item was framed such that teachers would reflect on their own practice as if they were their pupils. This would have been difficult to achieve if they had been asked to directly reflect on themselves. There were other responses to the same question which still indicated that more than ten teachers thought that pupils liked a good narrator, for instance 02 teachers said that their pupils would like a teacher who did not rely on the use of the textbook, 02 stated that a good teacher was the one who had interest in the subject, 04 whose teacher was one who was dedicated, hardworking and competent, 01 respondent thought his class liked a teacher who referred content to the latest events, 06 like a knowledgeable, informative teacher who read extensively and 07 stated that they liked a motivator who also attended to pupils' individual problems. It was highly possible that a history teacher who worked as the above 23 responses stated did so through some kind of narration. Typical responses among the 10 who clearly indicated that pupils liked story tellers were that the best history teacher was "one who comes to class with no book, and sing facts to his class without referring to any source". Another typical response was that the best teacher of history was the "one who is a good story teller". It was referred to 29 times that teachers selected the narrative method compared to 23 for discussion, 18 for the textbook method, 11 for the use of video, 07 in favour of projects, 06 in favour of museums, drama and simulation, and only 05 for worksheets as responses to item 1.9 (see appendix A) which strengthened the argument that the content -based narrative method was popular in Umlazi. This trend was affirmed by responses to item 3 where respondents were asked to rate content, attention to individual problems, monitoring and writing of notes, drilling essay questions, marking and monitoring skills. In item 3 the teachers rated content

26 times higher than other teaching activities including individual problems with 17, monitoring and writing notes at 15, drilling essay questions at 13, marking with 12 and monitoring skills at 10. If the scores of content were combined with drilling essay questions, and monitoring and writing notes, the exercises which may not be extremely divorced from content, the total score for content became 54 which by far outnumbered scores of attending to individual problems at 17, marking at 12 and monitoring skills at 10. The above evidence pointed to teacher preference of content and content oriented exercises as against skills-based exercises, although it should be acknowledged that these items did not leave much scope for teachers to indicate their opinions of skills-based teaching.

Despite the strong evidence in favour of content and content based exercises it may be too simplistic to conclude that Umlazi teachers prefer content, teacher-centred and content-based teaching methods without considering the context in which history teachers operated in Umlazi (see Chapter Four). This included teaching a content overloaded syllabus influenced by an external examination which only credited factual content (which was the case with all history teachers). Before concluding that Umlazi teachers were in favour of the content-based methods it should be considered that the items they answered did not in any way ask if they preferred content over pupil-centred methods, and also that more or less the same teachers pointed to critical thinking 20 times as more important than content, compared to the 13 times that content teaching was selected (see table 5.6). In the same table where teachers selected skills 15 times, and critical thinking 20 times. This brought the total score for skills responses combined to 35 against only 29 for content (13) added to 16 for drilling facts (see item 2 at the appendix A). A similar trend would be observed in responses to item 1.8 where teachers were asked to rank critical thinking, skills, content, good citizenship, and attitudes according to order of importance in their own teaching practice. Skills and critical thinking got 35 responses combined, content followed with only 15, then good citizenship with 09 and lastly attitudes with 07. On the basis of the above evidence it could be safely stated that Umlazi teachers were in favour of both the content-based methods and the skills-oriented teaching. Evidence received was inconclusive, as it indicated some tension between content-based as against skills-oriented teaching. However the purpose of this study was not to find out if Umlazi teachers preferred skills-based teaching or content teaching. The study was

aimed at finding teacher perceptions of the skill-based approach that already had been decided by the KZNED for implementation so that by the end of 1996 all standard ten history pupils in the province write one skills-oriented external examination. Umlazi history teachers viewed the skills-oriented history teaching very positively. Table 5.7 indicated that 22 against only three teachers were considering extrapolation as a very important history skill, 22 against 04 viewed synthesis as an essential skill whilst 21 out of 26 considered the skill of analysis as crucial. However favourable the perception of Umlazi teachers to skills-oriented teaching the reason could also be because the respondents were aware that the questionnaire attempted to get information that was related to historical skills and therefore answered the way they thought was expected. This could be understood as "teachers tending to advance educationalist views in discussions of school and education policy and act in ways that are discrepant with the view when the context is that of the teacher" (Keddie, 1971:136). But it could be argued that even if the views of teachers on skills were contrary to their practice, if the above evidence was analyzed in the context within which the teachers operated, where a content overloaded syllabus (see Chapter One) has to be taught and the external examinations credit factual content (see Chapter Two), and history pupils had no choice but to memorise facts to pass the external examination. Table 5.8 tabulated that memorisation of facts was selected 10 times compared to 06 times that critical thinking was selected. It could be argued that content-based methods that dominate history teaching practice in Umlazi did not indicate teacher preference of these methods but it indicated the necessity of factual teaching as the external examinations only required content reproduction from candidates (see Chapter One). The narrative method that was popular in Umlazi was traditional, largely content-based and teacher-centred approach (see Chapter Five) which was very useful when dealing with large volumes of content over a short period of time, as the teachers could summarise large quantities of content in one narrative lesson. With the perception that the syllabus was over-loaded with content it would be difficult for Umlazi teachers to change this fairly effective methodology judging by the relative external examination success by Umlazi circuits (see Chapter Four). This could be argued to explain teacher responses in favour of teacher-centred and content-based methods, the possibility of which was that the teachers would respond differently were the external examinations not so content-based.

Despite the teachers' criticism of textbooks as biased, racist, irrelevant, and erratic statistically (see table 5.3), the study findings indicated that the textbook method and the discussion method were amongst the three most popular teaching methods. Item 1.3 enquired about teachers' dislikes in history teaching, and the thrust of the concerns of the respondents was purely with the South African history content which was referred to as racist, distorted, discriminatory of female historical contributions and biased against Black heroes. Item 1.6 asked what improvements the teachers recommended for the new history curriculum and 16 out of 33 teachers suggested South African history free of content distortions, and bias against the contributions of blacks to the history of this country and 03 other teachers recommended prescription of school books which included black heroes. Item 5 asked the Umlazi teachers of what needed to be done to improve the history subject. 15 out of 33 stated that history must be relevant to the context where it was taught, reject bias and racism against any racial group and that history books must be relevant, up to date and have the same statistical information. The question was why would the teachers criticize textbooks and yet continue to use them as much as they do? The fact that the external examination and syllabuses were based on textbooks or visa versa¹⁰. Teachers had no choice but to use such books as it was the only way that they could help their pupils pass the standard 10 examination. Reforms of the existing history assessment criteria will immediately take textbooks out of the current favour. Once the amount of content was reduced from the syllabuses and historical skills were included, the narrative method and other content-based teaching methods would be less favoured.

It was questionable whether it was advisable to implement a new approach immediately, without a smooth transitional period characterised by a process of familiarising teachers with the skills-oriented teaching. The approach will certainly revolutionise teachers' traditional content-oriented and teacher-centred methods. Their theoretical basis of history teaching, and the learning styles for their pupils who were taught history in the medium of a second

¹⁰ The DET S.A. history examiner C.J. Grobblers, was also the author of "History in Action", one of the most popular prescribed history books among standard 10 teachers could be one of the reasons why teachers relied heavily on textbooks they despise

language, will all require much adjustment. As responses to item 4 pointed out (see table 5.2 and 5.3) the teachers expected the content changes, and a change of approach should accompany visible content changes. The survey indicated that many of them would only know about the new approach when they have to start implementing it, see table 5.7 for the poor response rate on skills items and it could also be argued that in items where Umlazi teachers were asked how they teach "an analysis of the legislation governing non-white affairs" in which 13 did not respond and on the item on the "terms of the treaty of Versailles" in which 26 out of 33 teachers did not respond, the causes could possibly include unfamiliarity with the SBA and the question of whether the skills items were clearly structured to decipher information about teacher approaches. When the respondents were asked how they teach the skills of analysis, synthesis and extrapolation as the existing syllabus required (see Chapter One), the responses did not show that teachers have taught these in any depth if they had, 02 teachers even stated that "skills were above the calibre of matric pupils". This also could be argued to be an indication of a degree of teacher unfamiliarity with the skills-oriented history teaching. It is acknowledged however that the items on the questionnaire may have been too complex for teachers whose background did not involve skills-oriented teaching which might have contributed to poor responses on the items related to skills but it was precisely for that reason and others that a survey was conducted. Those familiar with it could have responded in one way or the other not to totally abstain from answering. The teachers in the former HOD, HOR and DET as it was the case with KZDEC teachers as well as pupils have had no previous practical experience in this new history.

6.4. Assessment as a Dominant Influence on Teachers' Styles.

The study findings indicate that assessment dominates the teaching of history in Umlazi (see table 5.5). This table showed the responses related to the external examination where 26 out of 33 Umlazi teachers stated that their teaching was dominated by the external examination as they set questions for tests and internal examinations according to standards of the external examination, and revise previous external papers and drill facts to be memorised and reproduced in the external examination. The aims of the history syllabus included the

teaching of content, skills and attitudes (see Chapter One). Item 1.7 asked if the aims of the syllabus were realistic and 20 out of 29 stated that they were realistic but not achievable. It could be argued that teachers find it impractical to teach skills that the external examination did not test although they do not disagree with the syllabus.

Item 1.3 on teacher dislikes in history teaching received responses that included that teachers were critical of too much content in what they referred to as Eurocentric general history which included the history of Africa, and in response to another item 1.4 on whether time available to teach history was enough, 19 out of 33 teachers stated that time was not enough and that they recommended that teachers teach either South African history or general history not both, extended teaching periods per history lesson, removal of certain themes from the syllabus, and attention to other problems that impacted to history teaching which included overcrowded classes, too many slow learners and irrelevant facts. Item 5 on how to improve the subject received responses that included suggestions that history had to be relevant and that more time was required to teach history. Therefore teachers may consider the aims of the syllabus realistic but impossible to achieve due to the assessment criteria and the content overloaded syllabus.

Item 9 asked if their teaching was influenced by the external examination and 24 out of 28 stated that they were, whilst 02 stated that they were partly influenced by it, stressing that they set questions of tests and internal examinations according to standards and paper format of the external examinations. They pointed out that they prepared pupils to answer any examination question, revised previous examination papers, and that they had no alternative to teaching for examination because exams were the only channel for their pupils to make it through to post-matriculation levels (see Chapter Five). "The real solution to the problem of how to improve history teaching through the effective learning of skills lied in the reform of the external examination system" (Bottaro, 1993: 33).

Hiscock quoted in Chapter two argued that:

Overseas experience has shown that the quickest and the most effective means to get the 'skills-based approach' accepted nationally, is to incorporate it into the public examination structure. Teachers teach to the demands of their external examination (Hiscock, 1993:34).

The KZNED hoped that only by taking teachers to seminars, workshops and in-service training, they will come out as effective implementers of the SBA. Chapter Three indicated limitations of the skill-oriented teaching which were perceived by NED teachers (see 3.3). These limitations clearly point the hindrances ahead, and it could be argued that there would be harsher experiences by former DET and KZDEC teachers, and that the in-service courses planned would not address the problems foreseen by this study. Teachers might continue to teach as they did in all the years in the past as long as the syllabus continues to be overloaded with content and the examination still credit memorisation of facts.

Clearly the findings of this study show that teachers have not "mastered the theory behind the approach" (Hiscock, 1993:34) without which they cannot be effective in the classroom. This was not surprising given that it had never been encouraged by the department. Overcrowding and lack of facilities in schools continue, which would undermine efforts to promote individual enquiry into the past. Implementation of the SBA would not be advisable until these factors were adequately addressed. This must happen by involving ordinary teachers in decisions taken about classroom practice.

In-service training on the new history approach would not work unless assessment changes at the level of tests, assignments, internal examinations as well as external examinations. In May 1995 the National Minister of Education sent a circular to schools, approving the interim school phase curricula. This circular instructed teachers to follow a continuous assessment of learners and specify minimum requirements in terms of continuous assessment. This circular only described the process of assessment to be followed and did not specify whether the assessment process should still remain content-based or be skills-oriented.

Table 6 : Weightings for Continuous Assessment

Grade / Standard	Continuous Assessment	Examinations
Grade 1 to Std 1	100%	0%
Std 2,3 and 4	+ -50%	+ -50%
Std 5 to 9	+ -50%	+ -50%
Std 10	As per Present Senior Certificate Requirements	

(KZNED, Circular no: 3/95, 1995:3)

This circular indicated that no changes were to be implemented by std 10 teachers. Matric candidates would continue to be assessed on how much content they had memorised. Therefore history teachers would have no reason to teach skills that external examination would not assess. What remained to be seen were specific preparations to meet the skills-based assessment when it comes. But the KZNED should be alarmed by the British experience stated in Chapter Three and summarised in Brown and Daniels expression that:

The future of the schools Council History Project 13-16 is suspect in view of the actual problems with large numbers, the methodological difficulties and the uncertainty of teachers in coping with the complex written and oral assessment procedure. There is too much confusion between the value of the project in the teaching of history and its worth as a method of assessment of history in schools (quoted in 3.5 and cited in Fines, 1983:96)

6.5. Inadequate Teaching Resources.

The Department of Education and the National Education and Training Forum invited recommendations for essential changes in education curriculum but clearly stated that at this interim phase in the process of changing the curriculum "suggested changes should not make it necessary to introduce new books, as changing textbooks can only be accomplished over a longer period at great cost" (Bhengu, 1994:1). There would thus be limited materials or no new materials for use by the teachers implementing the new history, excepting the distribution of currently available materials (some of which were previously used by the NED and were not written from the context of a post apartheid era) because of the financial resource constraints of the Education Department.

In implementing the national phase curricula, schools need to take cognisance of their existing facilities and resources and the needs of the school and parent community. It is accepted that some schools will not be able to implement these phase curricula fully owing to their specific circumstances. A gradual phasing in of the new curricula is recommended (KZNED, 1995:1-2).

This statement was only issued by the Department in May 1995 when it was clear that schools in historically disadvantaged communities were continuing to teach as they always had, particularly in std 8 history, where the Department had stated that teachers should employ the SBA. This study found in September 1994 that teachers were not familiar with this approach and that despite their favourable perception of the SBA, the practical realities and the legacy of the past in education provision had to be addressed if positive results were to be achieved.

The human resource development through in-service training for teachers was planned for "target groups of KwaZulu-Natal teachers" (Bhengu, 1994:4). However the SBA had a theoretical underpinning, which had to be mastered to enable teachers to understand the approach. That process would take time. It could be argued that by 1997 teachers would have had two years of training in the new approach which would give teachers sufficient time to learn how to teach the new history, but in consideration of the new decision by the department that the common matriculation examination will be in 1996, it was clear that teachers as well as pupils from ex-HOR, ex-DET, ex-HOD, and ex-KZDEC would not even have acquired 12 months experience by the 1996 examination given that by November 1995 the SBA had not yet been implemented.

The reform in history teaching must include reform in the training programmes of prospective teachers.

There were 100 colleges of education in South Africa as a whole in 1990 and 20 universities with faculties of education. The colleges comprised of 67 266 students (Sieborger and Kenyon, 1992: 148).

Most of all these students were still being trained in an old paradigm. Unless that changes, the department would be wasting national resources training teachers at post-matric institutions only to re-train them when they start teaching.

The legacy of apartheid left historically black schools with over crowded classrooms, inadequate or non-existent facilities like libraries and insufficient teaching resources. Table 5.2 which tabulates the dislikes of Umlazi teachers in their teaching practice indicated that their third largest dislikes after biased South African history and Eurocentric general history was lack of, shortage of, remote and outdated teaching resources. Where resources existed these were often centred in historically white schools that were far away from black townships and rural areas. In 1989 Wilson and Ramphela described conditions in Black schools as:

The political economy of South Africa created a situation in African schools which is characterised by inadequate facilities, underqualified teachers, high pupil-teacher ratios, high failure and drop out rates, poorly prepared students and a drastic shortage of classroom space (Quoted in 4.2.3 and cited in Soobrayan, 1991:13)

Chapter Four affirmed the above description by indicating that Umlazi schools were easily accessible to criminals, had broken windows and doors, stolen books, unhealthy sanitary services, inadequate supply of water and poor supply of electricity (see 4.2.3). On the basis of the above evidence it did not appear that the implementation of the SBA would be smooth. The implementation of the new approach would only benefit the white pupils and teachers who would already have had experience in putting it into practice and have started to develop resources and materials appropriate for its effective implementation.

If, as the survey indicated, the SBA faced problems in urban township schools like Umlazi with better facilities, one imagined almost impossible conditions for farm and rural school teachers to implement the hasty decision of the KwaZulu-Natal Education Department.

Among the teacher recommendations on improving the history subject were improvements of facilities, relevant resources and teaching and learning aids. As Mathews suggests "Audio-visual aids such as charts, maps, diagrams, auditory resources such as radios, tapes and audio-visual resources such as television, film and video clarify concepts, ideas and skills in history" (Mathews *et al*, 1992:109). These resources were inadequate in the township schools and history teachers in the rural and farm schools had to cope without almost all of these resources. One of the reasons for the dominance of the narrative method could be a lack of resources which result in teachers having to explain concepts and events that could be easily

dealt with through the use of audio-visual resources. To introduce a new history teaching approach which was pupil-centred would be a futile exercise without sufficient resources (see 3.4). Without these resources the only things that pupils would have in their classrooms would be the prescribed textbooks and their history subject teacher. In order to cope with this desperate situation teachers would have no alternative but to resort to teacher-centred approaches, falling back on what they were taught and had experienced in their teaching practice in large classrooms in township schools and under the trees in rural areas.

6.6. The Problem of the Consultation Process.

The KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education set up twenty one ad hoc provincial Subject and Phase Committees comprising of:

- i. Subject advisors
- ii. Teachers
- iii. Representatives from teachers unions.

The ad hoc Provincial History Subject Committee comprised of the following members:

Dr. J. Mathews (chairman) ex-NED; Mr. T. B. Frost (secretary) ex-NED; Mr. D. Edley, Edgewood College and CordTEK; Mr. A. Madela, ex-KZDEC; Mr. P. T. Govender, ex-HOD; Mr D. Ramsaroop, SADTU and Indumiso; Mr. D. Isaacs, ex-HOR; Mr. S. Ndlovu, ex-DET; Mr. J. J. Kruger, NOU; Mr. N. Pierides, APEK; Mr. P. Louw, SAVBO; Ms. F. Khan, ex-HOD; Professor J. B. Wright, University of Natal (PMB); Ms K. Hiralal, University of Durban-Westville; Professor A. Cubbin, University of Zululand; Ms. L. Gule, University of Zululand; Mr. D. Van der Westhuizen, ex-DET; Dr. Y. Seleti, University of Natal (Durban) and Mrs C. Dyer of Edgewood College assisted with preparation of one of the guideline documents (KZNED, Guidelines for std. 8, 1995:ii).

The two prominent black teachers' unions were not represented satisfactorily. SADTU was represented only by D. Ramsaroop (who also was representing Indumiso College of Education), and the declining but still existing Natal African Teachers' Union (NATU) was not represented at all. The Committee was over-loaded with university lecturers and academics and former officials of the ex-education departments. The most prominent positions of chairman and secretary were occupied by ex-NED officials who had practised the new history approach and whose influence was highly likely to have impacted on the Committee decision to implement the SBA in 1995. Teachers were not only un-represented

but they were also not consulted about the Committee decision, although they would be key role players in the implementation of the SBA. Serious problems are likely because of the lack of or poor communication and consultation. Teachers in historically disadvantaged schools were highly politicised and they carried scars of resistance to unjust treatment of teachers and top-down decision making. It was short sighted to expect them to accept this KZDEC decision without question. The most serious concern is that if and when teachers resist, thousands of pupils are likely to suffer, and unfortunately most if not all those who suffer would be black pupils.

On 4 March 1995 the History Forum for KwaZulu-Natal was launched. This History Forum was largely influenced by key members of the ad hoc Provincial History Committee. Its chairperson was Dr Y. Seleti of the University of Natal who was also a key member of the Provincial History Committee which had taken a decision to implement the SBA in KwaZulu-Natal. Through this forum an attempt was being made to reach to teachers in historically disadvantaged schools so that they could join the forum and accept its constitution. Clause 4.3 of the History Forum constitution expresses its aim as "to encourage or initiate an approach to history that is":-

- i) inclusive and democratic
 - ii) Analytical and explanatory
 - iii) based on inculcating an awareness of how historical knowledge is produced.
 - iv) skills and content based.
- (History Forum for KwaZulu-Natal, 1994:2)

The empirical study shows that teachers in Umlazi:

- i. want to teach skills as mentioned by the syllabus
- ii. don't know how to teach skills
- iii. they are not familiar with the SBA
- iv. there is no time to teach anything other than content.

There was no indication in this evidence that teachers have had any discussions and debates on methodology. One teacher in response to the item on how respondents envisaged a new history curriculum argued that "a new history curriculum will improve only if all stakeholders were involved in the process of its development". In the context of the background above it would be nearly impossible to win an argument against this view.

6.7 Conclusion.

The findings of the empirical study are by no means definitive. They could be taken as the basis from which debates and further comments and research would take place. It was acknowledged that the grouping of items analyzed in Chapter Six could have been influenced by the writer's familiarity with history teaching in Umlazi, in which case the evidence in Chapter Five may be analyzed differently. If that occurs and further history curricula debates follow be it on verandas of crowded schools in the townships, history associations, academic circles and under the trees in farm and rural schools the study would have achieved one of its humble objectives.

Not every teacher response was considered as bearing meaning for the purposes of this study. Therefore some important inputs were left as a record in Appendix B. Among these were those which included teacher concerns about teaching history in the medium of English. Because such responses were not reflective of the general trend among the majority of responses they did not feature prominently in the analysis of the survey report and literature review.

History teachers in Umlazi used content-oriented methods such as the narrative and textbook methods. Chapter Two indicated that historical skills could be taught through the use of these methods. Although one was critical of teacher-centred approaches including the narrative method, it could be argued that "even the SBA needs a strong narrative" (Krige, 1993:41). This pointed to a possibility that the teacher-centred approaches, such as the narrative method, could be used in a new paradigm of pupil-centred teaching and learning. Criticism of the Umlazi's most dominant teaching method, the narrative method, was based on consideration that this approach was "a monologue by nature, as the teacher narrates while the pupils listen, the pupils role is that of a silent listener while the content is being unlocked for him" (Stuart *et al*, 1987:71).

The study established that the external assessment of history dominated the teaching activities of most history teachers in Umlazi. It stressed that it would be impossible to achieve success

out of the implementation of the SBA as long as the existing assessment criteria for standard 10 candidates was in place.

The SBA emerged from first world societies with sufficient resources. In view of the state of Umlazi schools and inadequate resources in historically black schools in South Africa, implementation of the SBA would be a risk, before a thorough "levelling of the playing field". However Umlazi teachers of history perceive skills-oriented teaching very positively, which indicated a fertile ground for influences of the advocates of the SBA and for careful implementation thereof.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUDING RECOMMENDATIONS.

7.1. Introduction.

The new approach to history teaching will be implemented in the whole region of KwaZulu-Natal, not only in Umlazi. If the condition in the Umlazi township schools was unfavourable for the new approach as suggested by this study, the implication of implementation could be disastrous for other areas with higher levels of violence and school disturbances and poorer resources. Chapter Three mentioned possible consequences of the implementation of the SBA. It drew its perspectives largely from literature reviewed. Chapter Six analysed data collected from Umlazi teachers. This Chapter makes its recommendations on the basis of both literature reviewed and findings of the empirical study.

7.2. On the SBA.

A skills-based approach involving the use of role play and empathy, combined with the necessary content changes is indispensable. Such an approach can give school history increased legitimacy and popularity (Pampallis, 1993:21).

This view summarised the recommendation that a shift from content to a SBA was necessary and that it had to be introduced in addition to changes in content. It was acknowledged that the content changes in the KZDEC guide to standard eight teachers, from where this study derived its definition of the SBA, were commendable and were an important step forward. However addition of content information which was previously neglected into a content overloaded syllabus without creating a reasonable balance between integration of the existing content to the new and reduction of the the amount of content in the syllabus, would be counter-productive.

Although the skills-oriented teaching was favoured by the history teachers of Umlazi, when viewed in the context in which it will be applied (see Chapter Four) and comprehensive re-training which most teachers required, one recommends a gradual phasing in of the SBA, not the haste that was reflected in the KZDEC's willingness to implement the approach whether the first common matriculation examination is in 19976 or 1997.

A series of intensive teacher in-service training courses run by personnel that was representative of different teachers from all former departments of education, and the involvement of the non-governmental organisations (NGO's) should precede implementation of a common skills-based examination.

Clause 4.9 of the constitution of the History Forum for KwaZulu-Natal indicates that this forum wants "to upgrade and develop teacher's expertise through in-service training done by experienced teachers" (1994:2). In practice the teachers who need development in the use of the SBA are those from the ex-DET, ex-KZDEC, ex-HOR and ex-HOD who were very largely black. Teachers with experience in the SBA were those from the ex-NED which consisted of white teachers. Therefore it could be argued that what the History Forum may help doing was to perpetuate the past and retain white privilege by creating the opportunities for white teachers to train black teachers who were not consulted when the decision on the implementation of the SBA was taken. While the History Forum was playing an important role to unite history teachers of divergent backgrounds, their ultimate goal of being representative still had to be achieved. The Forum and the Ad Hoc Provincial History Committee should reach out to every history teacher in the province through consultation with teacher unions. Umlazi teachers were highly unionised and they were very politically aware. They would resist dictated policies no matter how good they were. To prevent political contests of history teaching methodologies, Umlazi history teachers must be consulted, and from the survey findings, Umlazi teachers perceive the skills-oriented history teaching as very important. In no time the new history would be taught and fully supported by most stakeholders in history teaching.

Thorough research of the unique economic and socio-political elements of the South African society should be conducted to determine how best the SBA could be used to serve cultural and historic needs of South Africa.

7.3. On Teacher Training.

While teachers are engaged in debates and implementation of new history teaching methodology, prospective teachers in post-matric teacher-education institutions should be trained in the new history teaching paradigm.

The best place to begin with is in the colleges of education, where many of our history teachers in the making, their outlook shaped by twelve years of schooling in the conservative education system, are vassals of many customary prejudices and stereotypes. A clear need exists to challenge the assumptions and mindsets of these young adults who are set to begin their careers, as history teachers in the new South Africa (Simchowitz, 1992:169).

To be effective when the college graduates start teaching they have to join other teachers in becoming reflective and critical practitioners who are involved in debate, deliberation and decision making. They need to be aware of a range of models of quality practice.

For the SBA to achieve the aims of its implementation the external examination must be reformed. It must move away from its overemphasis on content in its assessment techniques. Without incorporation of this approach in the examination structure, teachers may not find sound reasons to teach what the examination did not credit.

7.4 General Conclusion

The writer hopes that what the study survey discovered would generate debates among history teachers and stimulate further research on history teaching methodology. The survey of this dissertation found that Umlazi history teachers were not familiar with the SBA, they relied on teacher centred approaches, and that their perceptions of the teaching of the historical skills were favourable. This provided a base from which the KZDEC and its ad hoc Provincial Subject Committee could start acquainting Umlazi history teachers with the approach.

The matriculation examination for 1996 would be the first common examination inclusive of all the students from the ex-Departments of Education. Those teachers who were not yet exposed to the SBA should not be pressurised and be made to experience insecurity when

they face a responsibility to help their pupils pass the examination based on an approach that they were never exposed to.

It seemed that the KZNED and the KwaZulu-Natal ad hoc History Committee have accepted Hiscock's view expressed in Chapter Two and Six that the most effective means to get the skills-based approach accepted nationally was to incorporate it into the public examination structure because that would leave teachers with no choice but to teach to the demands of the external examination. The 1996 external examination and other examinations to follow should not be used to get the SBA "accepted" in KwaZulu-Natal as a springboard to get it "accepted" nationally. If this happened the desired outcome might not be achieved and history teachers, most of whom still carried fresh scars of fighting political struggles might resist, and when that happens innocent pupils suffer.

The 1996 examination questions should accommodate the inequalities inherited from the past era of apartheid. Gradual introduction of the approach through comprehensive inservice courses and workshops centred on the specific needs of the teachers would contribute to acquainting teachers with the SBA.

The study also discovered that teachers were more concerned with the content problems than the teaching approaches in use, therefore content changes needed to go hand in hand with other aspects of the history curriculum reform and development. The SBA had dominated the debates on history curriculum development during this transitional period. However these valuable debates were only carried out by academics, policymakers and the existing membership of the KwaZulu-Natal history Forum. Should these debates spread to schools, it might help increasing history teachers' awareness of current debates on teaching methodology. Finally, The KZNED and its Provincial History Committee should also motivate the teachers to revive their interest in the subject. If this was achieved it would impact on pupils and more of them will include history as their matriculation subject.

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APPENDICES

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QUESTIONARE ON THE TEACHING OF HISTORY
IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

This questionnaire is for the purposes of part - completion of M.Ed. studies at the University of Natal. The writer appeals for honesty and undertakes to keep the responses confidential and the identity of the respondents anonymous.

1.1 Which subjects do you teach ?

1.2 Please indicate your professional and academic education

- (i) College ☐
- (ii) University ☐
- (iii) Other ☐

1.3 What is your highest qualification in history ? Tick x more than one block if applicable.

- (a) Matric ☐
- (b) College specialisation subject ☐
- (c) University course one or two or both ☐
- (d) University major, and, or, post graduation level ☐
- (e) If other, please specify _____

1.4 How many classes / sections of history do you teach ☐

1.5.2. Name three things you like and three dislikes about history teaching

1.5 Estimate the number of your pupils altogether _____
 → Likes. ☐

- (i) _____
- (ii) _____
- (iii) _____

Dislikes:

(i) -----

(ii) -----

(iii) -----

1.7 Do you feel that you have enough time to teach history ? if not, what would you recommend ?

Comments if any -----

1.8 What has the strongest influence on how you teach history ?

1.9 How would you like the new history curriculum to improve on the existing one ?
Specify areas you think, they need urgent attention.

Comment if any -----

2. The history syllabus for standards eight, nine and ten are "designed to integrate the teaching of content, skills and attitudes

1.9 How would you like the new history curriculum to improve on the existing one ?
Specify areas you think, they need urgent attention.

Comment if any -----

2. The history syllabus for standards eight, nine and ten are "designed to integrate the teaching of content, skills and attitudes

2.1 Do you think that these aims are realistic ? If not, please specify:

2.2 Do you think that you achieve these aims ? if not, why?-----

2.3 Arrange the following according to their order of importance in your teaching.
Indicate by writing numbers in blocks provided

a) Contents

b) Attitudes

c) Skills

d) Good citizenship

e) Critical thinking

2.4 What do you think needs to be done to improve the history subjects ?

Comments if any -----

3. Tick any or some of the following that is ^sconsistent with your teaching and explain Why ?

- (i) Narration ☐ -----
- (ii) Text book ☐ -----
- (iii) Discussion ☐ -----
- (iv) Project ☐ -----
- (v) Video ☐ -----
- (vi) Worksheet ☐ -----
- (vii) Drilling facts ☐ -----
- (viii) Musuems ☐ -----
- (ix) Drama & Simulation ☐ -----
- Comments if any ☐ -----

4. Rank according to order of importance, by writing numbers on the following blocks provided.

- (a) Understanding Content ☐
- (b) Development of skills ☐
- (c) Memory of facts ☐
- (d) Critical thinking ☐
- (e) Arousing interest in the subject ☐
- (f) Motivating for exams ☐
- (g) Drilling essential facts ☐
- (h) Training for essay writing ☐

5.1 Are you satisfied with activities you perform in class ?

If no briefly explain-----

5.2 Which of the ff. are the most important, please arrange them according to their order of importance by writing numbers on blocks provided

- (a) Teaching history content ☐
- (b) Preparing notes for the pupils ☐
- (c) Checking if notes are properly written by pupils ☐
- (d) Drilling essay answers on previous exams ☐
- (e) Attending to group and individual problems ☐
- (f) Teaching and monitoring pupils History skills ☐
- (g) Marking Assignment, tests and exams. ☐

Comment if any -----

6. How do you think your pupils would define a good History teacher

7. If your std 10 pupils were to analyse "legislation governing none white affairs in S.A. Between 1910 - 24" in their final exam.. Briefly discribe how you would prepare them to answer this question.

8. Do you think that the matric final exam test the aims as set out in the syllabus (i) Content (ii) Skills (iii) Attitudes ? if not, Please briefly explain.

9. Is your teaching influenced by the external exams ? Briefly support your answer

10. What sort of skills do you think pupils need in order to pass the std 10 external exams

11. Synthesis involves bringing together all facts and evidence, analysed, extrapolated and so on into a whole ^{EXPOSITION} ~~exposition~~ that answers the question in a form of oral or written. Do you think that the above is a necessary skill? If so how do you equip your pupils to use this skill

Comment if any

12 The skills of extrapolation involve pupils in making forecasts about how given situations might develop. Do you think that the above is a necessary skill? If so, how do you equip your pupils to use their skill of extrapolation?

Comment if any

13. Analysis amounts to knowing in the case of a given body of facts and evidence, which bits are appropriate to translate, interpret, evaluate, extrapolate and so on. Do you think this is a necessary intellectual skill of the history subject? If so how do you equip your pupils to use the skill of analysis?

Comment if any

14. Do you think that the skills of history have relevance in other school subjects? If so, how do you co-operate with other teachers in the development of the pupils ability to use these skills

Comments of any

15. Briefly describe how you teach "the terms of the 1919 treaty of versailles applying to Germany after the w w I"

Comment if any

16 What do you consider to be the most important aim of history teaching ?

Comment if any

Appendix B

Findings OF The Survey

5. The Survey on History Teachers in Selected Secondary Schools.5.1. Aims and Method of Investigation.

- i). To gather information from teachers of history on their perceptions of the skills-based approach.
- ii). To establish the extent to which DET current assessment criteria of matric history candidates impact on history teaching in schools.
- iii). To gather information from history teachers on what they consider to be areas in the history curriculum that need most urgent development.
- iv). To gather information about history teachers general concerns, likes, dislikes and views about teaching methods, content, skills and the syllabus in use.

5.2. The Test Group.

When a verdict is given on the reliability of the data, one should take account that:

- i). The number of history teachers who returned the questionnaires is representative of almost the total population targeted.
- ii). The Secondary Schools selected were only those with Standards Nine and Ten history classes.

It should be mentioned that questionnaires were handed personally to teachers and also collected from each individual respondent three to four days later, the same way they were given to them.

5.3. The Findings.

Item 1.1 Qualifications in History Teaching.

All 33 respondents have matric certificates in history teaching. 32 have post-matric qualifications in history teaching.

- i). 13 teachers specialized in history in their Teachers' Diploma Training.
- ii). 13 teachers majored in history at junior degree level and some have post-graduation qualifications.
- iii). 06 teachers have passed up to two university degree courses.
- iv). 01 teacher has a matric certificate only.

The above information indicates that up to 97 percent of history teachers were qualified history teachers.

Item 1.2 Number of History Classes or Sections Taught.

- i). 11 Respondents teach 03 history classes.
- ii). 10 Respondents teach 02 history classes.
- iii). 07 Respondents teach 01 history section.
- iv). 04 Respondents teach 04 history sections.

91% of the respondents teach more history if not all history sections than any other subject. The question was unfortunately phrased such that it is difficult to establish whether those who teach more than one history section do that in one class of standard (e.g. Std. 8, 9 and 10).

Item 1.3 Likes and Dislikes in History Teaching.

99 responses were expected if each respondent was to mention three likes and 99 dislikes were expected if 33 respondents named three dislikes.

1. Likes: 08 Teachers: History informs about the past enabling teachers to understand the present which puts them in a better position to the future. This response is not original as it is a reason taught at at teacher training institutions to history teaching. It is difficult to establish whether teachers responded out of belief or they merely answered as they did back at college.

- 06 Teachers: Learn facts from history content.
- 07 Teachers: Develop critical thinking in the study of history.
- 06 Teachers: Like history because it encourages research and enquiry about local and events.
- 03 Teachers: Have interest in the subject.
- 03 Teachers: Get better political understanding of world and local events.
- 02 Teachers: Like history because it improves understanding of contemporary events.
- 02 Teachers: Like history because it improves their skills. (None were specified).

Only 37 out of expected 99 responses were given. This could be because teachers have more dislikes than likes or that they don't have more likes than the number they gave.

2. Dislikes: 16 respondents dislike SA history because it's biased and distorted.

09 teachers dislike content overload in the history syllabus.

08 dislike pupil passivity, laziness, demonstration and failure to pass exams.

04 respondents dislike too much marking involved since 75 - 80% of history answers are essays which pupils fail to write properly.

07 teachers dislike history because its Eurocentric and irrelevant to pupils environment.

06 dislike outdated textbooks which are also not sufficient to pupils enroled.

03 dislike history for pupil english language problems.

02 teachers dislike history for poor and too remote teaching resources.

02 respondents consider history a difficult subject.

02 dislike it for discrimination against women which discourage

girls to study it.

03 dislike history for encourage memorization of facts.

01 dislike history of Africa because it is based on European Colonial activities.

66 out of 99 expected responses were given. This indicates a bigger number of Dislikes than 37 Likes given. This information also indicates that teachers have more things they disliked than they like about the history subject as aught in South Africa.

Item 1.4. Time to Teach History. Is it Enough?

14 respondents have enough time to teach (42%).

19 teachers don't have enough time to teach (58%).

Optional Comments

Reasons: 06 have not time because of a content-overloaded syllabus.
01 have no time because there are too many irrelevant facts.
01 have no time because of overcrowded classes.
01 have no time because of too many slow learners.

Solutions: 04 respondents think that one teacher must teach one of either SA or general history.
02 respondents recommended teaching on Saturdays.
01 recommends extended teaching periods per lesson.
01 recommends removal of some themes from the syllabus.

58% of the teachers believe that the history syllabus is overloaded with content and that there is too much for time available to teach it.

Item 1.5. Stronger Influence on how teachers teach history.

- 06 are influenced by their own interest in the subject.
- 06 are inspired by knowledge they acquire in exploration of historical events.
- 04 are inspired by politics to study origin of event in history.
- 03 are influenced by current events in S.A.
- 02 respondents are influenced by pupils lack of understanding.
- 02 are influenced by available sources.
- 01 teacher is encouraged by critical thinking that develops through the study of history.
- 01 pupil result of tests and examinations.
- 01 influenced by english language acquisition inherent in the study of history.
- 01 influenced by pupil responses.
- 01 influenced by events they study in history.

28 out of 33 responded to this item and the majority of those responded are influenced by their own interest in the subject, knowledge of events and politics.

Item 1.6. How to Improve The History Curriculum.

- 16 recommend SA history free of distortions, bias and inclusive of Black heroes.
- 04 responded that general history is irrelevant and too much for the time available.
- 03 recommend removal or improvement of African history.
- 03 recommend prescription of books written from Black perspectives.
- 03 teachers recommend inclusion of recent events.
- 02 both SA and general history to be relevant to local environment.
- 01 teacher recommended one teacher for either SA or general history.
- 01 inclusion of all stakeholders in the curriculum development process especially teachers.

The majority of the teachers are against biased, distorted and white oriented history. They recommend SA and general history relevant to local environment and written from

Black perspectives.

Item 1.7. Are the aims of history subject outlined in the syllabus realistic? (Content, Skills and Attitudes).

20 respondents believe the aims are realistic.

09 teachers consider aims unrealistic.

In contrast to those 20 who believe that aims are realistic 18 say they are not achievable and 12 consider aims achievable.

Contrast in the above responses could be caused by the fact that some teachers may agree with the aims as outlined in the syllabus but in practice encounter problems that make them unachievable.

Item 1.8. What is the most important among the following: Critical Thinking, Skills, Content, Attitudes and Good Citizenship.

Critical Thinking	22
Content	15
Skills	13
Good Citizenship	09
Attitude	07

The majority of responses are in favour of critical thinking and content.

Item 1.9. The most consistent Teaching Method.

Most consistent:

Narrative Method	29
Discussion	23
Textbook	18

Least consistent:

Video	11
Project	07
Drama and Simulation	06
Museum	06
Worksheet	05

Teachers have criticized textbooks for bias and distortion of facts yet the textbook method to teaching is one of the most consistent. The Narrative Method which is largely teacher-centred appears to be the most popular and much in contrast with the current movement towards the enquiry-based and pupil centred approaches.

Item 2. Ranking According to Order of Importance.

Most Important

Least Important

Critical Thinking	20	Skills	15
Drilling Facts	16	Content	13
Motivate for Exams	15	Teaching Essays	13

Item 3. Order of Importance.

Content	26
Attention to Individual Problems	17
Monitoring and Writing Notes	15

Least Important

Drilling Essay Answers	13
Marking	12
Monitoring Skills	10

Item 4. Satisfaction in Teaching History.

13	Satisfied
17	Not Satisfied

03	Unusable Responses
33	Total

Item 5. What Needs to be done to Improve the History Subject.

- 15 stated that history must be relevant to pupils environment, rejected bias and racism against any racial group. Half of them also mentioned that books must be relevant, up to date and have the same statistical information.
- 06 recommend teacher development through history workshops, seminars and in-service training courses.
- 05 recommend teaching methodology based on the development of pupils critical thinking, development of insight, and pupil activity.
- 02 recommend pupil-based teaching and more assignments and independent study.
- 02 recommend facilitation of history teaching with relevant resources and teaching aids.
- 01 integration of history with other subjects.
- 01 recommends inclusion of contemporary history.
- 01 teacher recommends more time to teach.

The majority of responses are in favour of removal of bias and distortion of facts in South African history and teacher development programmes.

Item 6. How Pupils Would Define a Good History Teacher.

- 10 believe that pupils would define a good history teacher as one who is a good story teller or narrator and who prepares notes for them.
- 07 stated that pupils would go for the teacher who stimulates pupil interest, motivates pupils to learn, encourages pupils innovative ideas, encourages discussion and attends to pupils individual problems.
- 06 stated that pupils like a teacher who is knowledgeable, informative and reads extensively.
- 08 pupils like a teacher who relates the past to contemporary events relevant to pupil environment.
- 04 teachers stated that pupils like a dedicated, hardworking and competent teachers.
- 02 teachers think pupils would define a good teacher as the one who has interest in the subject.
- 02 teachers think their pupils like a teacher who doesn't rely on the use of the textbook.
- 01 respondent regards a teacher who deliberately teaches and develops pupils skills as their favourite.

Most teachers considered the Narrative method as the most popular and consistent in their teaching. In this item they have stated that the pupils would define a good teacher as one who is a good Narrator. This could indicate the extent to which teachers are committed to content-based and teacher centred approaches.

Item 7. How Teachers Would Prepare Pupils to answer "Analysis of Legislation Governing Non-White Affairs form 1910 - 1924".

13 out of 33 respondents did not respond to this question.

09 teachers stated that they will drill relevant facts to the question above.

03 stated that they will narrate relevant facts.

02 teachers would recommend books for pupils to go and read.

01 teacher would give notes, providing pupils with facts to memorize and to answer the question.

01 teacher stated that he will facilitate a discussion on the topic.

04 responses were unusable and the majority of those who responded clearly ignored to explain how a skill of analysis would be taught. Their emphasis is on narration of relevant facts for pupils to memorize for exams. The big number of those who did not respond could be an indication that there is no deliberate attempt by those teachers to teach analysis of facts and evidence.

Item 8. Whether DET Matric Examinations, Test Aims as Set on Syllabus (Content, Skills and Attitudes).

17 believed that Matric External Exams test Aims.

10 respondents stated that Matric External Exams do not test aims.

06 responses were unusable.

Out of the 10 respondents who stated that exams do not test the aims, 07 of them said that exams only test how students memorize facts, one stated that no attitudes and skills are tested by the matric exams.

Responses to this item clearly indicated that there is a contrast between the requirements of the Syllabus and the assessment criteria of the DET. 17 responses believing that aims of the syllabus are tested by these examinations could indicate the extent to which teachers have accepted and conditioned themselves to the status quo in history teaching and the impact of external examination assessment requirements to teaching methodology.

Item 9. Is Your Teaching influenced by the External Exams.

- 24 Influenced by External Exams.
- 02 Partly influenced by External Exams.
- 02 Not influenced by External Exams.
- 05 Did not respond to the question.
- 33 Total responses expected.

Reasons why 24 teachers believe that their teaching is influenced by external exams.

- 12 teachers stated they prepare pupils for exams by teaching external standards and using external style of setting questions used during lessons, for tests and internal examination.
- 05 are preoccupied by an attempt to finish the syllabus to get pupils ready to answer any exam question.
- 03 revise previous examination external question papers.
- 03 no alternative but to teach for exams because it is only through exams that they

can pass to the post-matric level.

- 01 respondent says that content overloaded syllabus leaves no alternative to teachers other than to encourage their pupils to memorize facts as that is how they are evaluated externally.
- 02 teachers stated that although they are bound by exams to teach and prepare pupils, teachers also have to make sure that pupils understand.

Responses to this item indicate among other things, the power and impact the assessment criteria for DET Matric Exams have to the day to day activities in history classes. Matric Examinations require pupils to memorize as much facts as they can to earn marks for insight. Teachers prepare pupils for that.

Item 10. How Teachers Equip Pupils with the Skill of Synthesis.

- 06 encourage pupils to read and collect facts from different sources then summarize.
- 02 favour questioning channelled to equip pupils with the skill of synthesis.
- 02 give pupils more assignments and essays .
- 02 facilitate discussions in class leading to the study of this skill.
- 07 did not respond
- 14 responses were unusable.
- 33 total number of expected responses.

Is the Skill of Synthesis Necessary?

22	Necessary
04	Not necessary
07	No responses
33	Total number of expected responses

The majority of those who responded to this item (08) recommended pupil exercises involving self enquiry leading to summarising of facts into a whole that answers a question. Although this is majority, it is a minority compared to the number of those who did not respond and unusable responses (21). This could be an indication that teachers have no idea as to how they should teach skills. Considering that the sample of the study consists of fully qualified teachers, who know how to teach, the reason for poor response to this question could be that teachers don't teach these skills at all, and they don't understand why they should teach them, after all they are not required by exams except memory of facts. To confirm this are the responses on whether the skill is necessary or not. An overwhelming majority of 22 respondents said synthesis is necessary against 04 who stated that synthesis is not necessary, a contrast of earlier responses on the same item.

Item 11. How Teachers Equip Pupils with the Skill of Analysis.

12 did not respond.

07 give assignments, long questions and essays to equip pupils with the skill of analysis.

03 ask oral questions leading to the development of the skill.

02 encourage memorisation.

- 02 encourage critical thinking.
- 02 deliberately teach pupils this skill.
- 01 encourage independent study.
- 01 develop pupil insight.
- 01 teach the skill through class discussions.
- 02 stated that the skill is above matric pupil calibre.
- 33 total number of responses expected.

Only two respondents favour a deliberate teaching of the skills to pupils, the rest of the responses indicate that teachers believe that pupils will learn and acquire the skill of analysis through normal history exercises like writing essays, assignments, discussions and writing paragraphs. 12 did not respond at all. Clearly teachers are either not clear as how to teach this skill or they know how to teach it but only they don't do it as the examinations don't credit pupils skills except memory retention of facts. This could also indicated that teachers know that the skill is important but don't understand why it is expected that the skills be taught when no credit is given to skills development of matric candidates.

Is the Skill of Analysis Necessary?

21	Necessary.
05	Not necessary.

As much as 21 teachers believe that analysis is a necessary skill, earlier responses to this item indicate that they don't teach skills. This could answer why 07 did not respond to this question and 05 don't think that skills are necessary. Teachers may be in a dilemma whether to follow the syllabus and teach skill or just prepare pupils to pass exams that only require memorization of facts and don't credit and encourage skills development.

Item 12. How Teachers Equip Pupils with the Skill of Extrapolation.

- 08 did not respond.
- 03 teach extrapolation through discussions.
- 02 give essays, assignments and long paragraphs.
- 02 refer pupils to various sources.
- 01 encourage critical thinking.
- 01 teach skills through cartoons.
- 01 stick on drilling facts for memorization.
- 01 deliberately teach extrapolation.
- 14 responses were unusable.
- 33 Total number of expected responses.

Is The Skill of Extrapolation Necessary?

22	Necessary.
08	No responses.
03	Not Necessary.
33	Total number of responses expected.

There is no reason to believe that teachers do teach the skill of extrapolation or even that teachers are familiar with the skills-based approach. 22 out of 33 expected responses know that the skill is necessary but either they don't know much about skills

training, or they know but it is not necessary for examination purposes. It is possible that others said these skills are necessary because it has become clear to them that the questionnaire expects them to say so if that is the case.

Item 13. Skills Necessary to Pass Matric Examinations.

10	Memorization of facts.
09	Synthesis of facts.
08	Analysis of facts.
06	Critical thinking.
04	Interpretation of Facts.
03	Communication.
03	Evaluation.
01	Problem solving.

44 out of the 99 expected responses if each of the 33 respondents were to give three essential skills for exams.

Most teachers consider memory retention, synthesis and analysis as the most important skills for matric candidates to pass exams. This could be supported by the fact that 75 - 80% of the examination answers are essays which require a great deal of synthesis (summarising) and analysis and also memory of facts which features prominently in DET

examination assessment criteria.

Item 14. How Teachers would prepare pupils to answer the ff. question: "Terms of the Treaty of Versailles".

- 26 did not respond.
- 05 narrate facts.
- 02 teach through discussions in class groups.
- 33 Total responses expected.

It is not easy to use this item to interpret the responses provided as there are too many no responses.

Item 15. Relevance of History Skills in other subjects.

- 09 History and Languages.
- 04 History and Geography.
- 03 Could not give response because they are not familiar with skills-based approach.
- 02 History and all other school subjects.

The majority of the respondents think that history is relevant to other school subjects, skills could be used across the curriculum. It is interesting to note that three teachers who could not provide responses because they are not familiar with skills, they recommend seminars, courses and workshops for teachers.

Item 16. What do you consider to be the most important aim of history teaching?

- Teachers stated fewer things they liked than they disliked. That is 37 out of expected 99 responses were received on what teachers liked. 27 out of 37 responses received indicated that teachers like history for factual information, developing critical thinking and for encouraging enquiry about local and world events.

- 66 out of 99 expected responses were received on teachers' dislikes about history teaching. Teachers were more specific on that they disliked. 4 out of 66 responses received mentioned biased and distorted South African history, content overloaded syllabus, pupil demotivation, eurocentric and irrelevant general history, and outdated and biased textbooks.

- Only ~~two~~³⁰ out of 66 responses mentioned discrimination against women historical contribution. This could be that 85 percent of teachers who responded were men.

- ii) Asked about what needed to be done to improve the history subject 26 out of 33 respondents mentioned relevancy of history to pupils environment, history free of racial discrimination against any racial group, history seminars, workshops and intensive in-service training programmes, development of pupil creativity, critical thinking and insight.

- No teacher mentioned equipment of pupils with skills relevant in the subject.

- iii) Asked how teachers would like the new history curriculum to improve. 23 out of 33 responses mentioned South African history free of distortion, bias and inclusive of Black heroes, relevant general history, and improvement or removal of African history.

- The same concerns about bias and distortion of facts in the South African history kept on coming.

On Teaching Methodology Consistent with teachers daily classroom activities.

- i) Asked about their most consistent method out of 08 given, teachers indicated that Narrative Method is the most popular, followed by Discussion and textbook methods. These methods are largely teacher-centred and content-oriented.

- ii) When ranking teaching essays, content, skills, motivating for exams and critical thinking, teachers ranked critical thinking highest followed by drilling of facts and motivating for exams. This could indicate the impact of DET external assessment criteria and the whole examination has on teachers and how it affects their teaching strategies.
- iii) Asked how teachers think pupils would define a good history teacher, 10 out of 33 teachers mentioned that pupils would go for a teacher who narrates well and who gives them notes.

Asked about familiarity of unfamiliarity with the Skills-Based Approach.

- i) Asks how teachers would equip pupils with skills of synthesis, analysis and extrapolation, out of 99 responses expected 55 either did not respond or gave unusable responses. (Those that were totally unrelated to the question and in most cases exposing unfamiliarity with these skills). 44 responses given also did not convince that teachers were familiar with skill-based approach, as only 03 out of 44 indicated that they deliberately teach their pupils skills but two of them indicated that they favour a workshop, seminars or in-service training on skills.
- ii) Asked how teachers would teach their pupils to analyze a particular question 13 out of 33 expected responses were not provided 12 of the 23 who responded stated that they will narrate relevant facts and never mentioned analysis. This could be a reflection of how teachers prepare pupils for exams, that is to drill facts considered essential for exams and ignore skills that in any case won't be credited even if pupils have them.
- iii) Asked about skills necessary to pass matric 10 out of 44 responses out of 99 expected, stated that memory retention is the most important skill for pupils to pass matric. Although this response could indicate that teachers are not familiar and also do not teach skills except for memorization of facts, it can also explain the extent to which teachers have accepted the reality of exams that only require

NATAL SENIOR CERTIFICATE EXAMINATIONHISTORY (HIGHER GRADE)GUIDE-LINES TO SUB-EXAMINERSI. INTRODUCTION

The basic premise underlying the H.G. History examination is that the questions should test not only the candidate's knowledge of historical facts, but also the insight and skills which an intelligent study of History requires.

Insight and skills are best tested when the candidate is made to think and argue rather than when the candidate merely tries to reproduce a prepared answer to a stereotyped examination question.

Historical thinking is encouraged in two ways:

- by setting problem-centred essays which require the candidate to work out an answer and to use, select and adapt the historical information he possesses.
- by asking candidates to consider historical evidence of various kinds, e.g. documents, cartoons, maps, etc.

II. ESSAY ANSWERS1. OBJECTIVES

Problem-centred essay-type questions are designed to test the following qualities:

- accurate and adequate historical information;
- the ability to distinguish the components of the historical problem posed by the question - the skill of comprehension and analysis;
- the ability to distinguish what is relevant and important for the answer to the question - the skill of selection;
- logical thought and effective argument put together in a structured answer - the skill of synthesis; and
- adequate style and presentation with a good command of language - the skill of communication.

The assessment of these three basic components - CONTENT, SKILLS, PRESENTATION - goes on simultaneously; it is not possible to separate them. Historical content must be assessed within the candidate's insight and understanding of the question. An answer which shows a grasp of content but which fails to answer the question cannot be given a pass mark. In the final analysis what will count will be a sub-examiner's judgement of the candidate's answer as a whole.

a. ESSENTIAL CONSIDERATIONS

How well does the candidate cope with the problem posed in the question?

How much factual information can the candidate master in support of his/her arguments?

How has the candidate presented the argument?

In assessing the degree to which an essay meets these basic requirements, consider:

the validity of the candidate's arguments in terms of accepted interpretations of historical events;

the logical structure and sequence of the arguments put forward;

the omission of information demanded by the interpretation offered;

the inclusion of information irrelevant to the interpretation offered; and

errors of fact.

b. THE APPROACH

(i) Work from the category to the specific mark, i.e. decide in which general category the answer falls before deciding on perhaps 75/120.

(ii) Remember to explore the extremities of the mark scale. Timidity in marking favours mediocrity. Do not hesitate to award full marks if an essay is as good as you can reasonably expect under examination conditions and with the time limitation.

(iii) Be generous rather than mean.

(iv) Do not be hidebound by the details in the mark scheme. Candidates may legitimately approach any question in a wide variety of ways.

(v) Each essay answer will be assessed independently by two sub-examiners.

(vi) Do not be misled by the length of an essay; you are assessing its quality.

... / THE CATEGORIES

III. NON-ESSAY ANSWERS

4. These questions will usually be structured and the answers will be more specific than essay answers. They should be marked according to the mark allocation given in the question paper.
5. Candidates will probably write these answers towards the end of the examination. Be generous. It is important to give full marks where appropriate. Remember that the candidate is being asked to exercise a skill. Even if the answer is short, it may be the result of a complex process of reading, understanding and thinking.
6. These questions will usually require a candidate to respond to various types of sources. They will aim to test some of the following skills:
comprehension; inference; evaluation; judgement;
extrapolation; correlation and cross-reference; empathy;
historiography (e.g. distinguishing primary/secondary sources).
7. Marks should be given for levels of thinking rather than for pure knowledge. A table of levels should be constructed and appropriate marks allocated; this table could be adjusted in the light of the answers of the candidates. Particular care should be taken in marking answers involving BIAS and EMPATHY.
8. BIAS:
Does the candidate analyse the origin or provenance of the source and the importance of the date; the background and natural prejudice of the author? Is there deliberate distortion or a particular purpose behind the source? Does the source contain facts or opinion, a one-sided viewpoint with colourful or emotive language?

Possible levels:

- | | |
|----------|---|
| Level 1: | a simple, general statement unsupported by evidence from the source; |
| Level 2: | reference is made to the source(s) which is accepted at face value; |
| Level 3: | some questioning of the face value of the source(s) with little evaluation; and |
| Level 4: | detailed evaluation, questioning the provenance, the writer's motives; cross-checks with other sources. |

9. EMPATHY is difficult to measure. It is a mode of thinking incorporating a number of skills. It has been defined as the ability to understand the motives, feelings, problems, beliefs and values of people in the past. Remember that an imaginative interpretation must be based on knowledge and the source(s).

There are really four past worlds:

- (a) the past as it actually was;
- (b) the past as those there at the time saw it;
- (c) how they said it was; and
- (d) how we see it to-day.

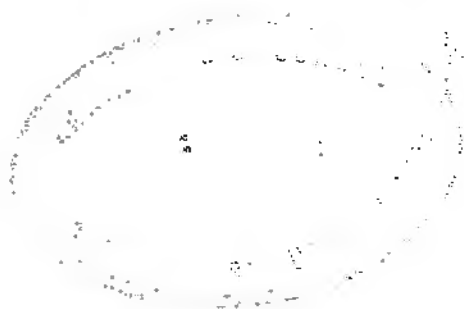
Possible levels

- Level 1: uses knowledge to describe a way of life; not an empathetic response. "People in the past were stupid because they failed to adopt better courses of action.", i.e. their actions are seen as unintelligible.
- Level 2: "every empathy"; some awareness of a specific situation but seen in terms of modern values and ideas or relies on hindsight.
- Level 3: "restricted historical empathy". Candidate understands the role of hindsight and of different values, attitudes and beliefs but does not deal with the wider context, e.g. "all Arabs are terrorists".
- Level 4: "contextual historical empathy" where the thinking and feelings of individuals within the group may be shown. The situation and the overall context should be woven together to produce a coherent overall account.



REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING



SYLLABUS

FOR

HISTORY

STANDARD 8

Date of Implementation: JANUARY 1987

A. AIMS WITH SYLLABUS

History is a systematic study of the past. It is a study based on evidence: a selection of facts and events that are arranged, interpreted and explained. Thus History, in addition to its content, is also a mode of enquiry, a way of investigating the past which requires the acquisition of use of skills. The vents, communities and peoples of the past are studied in order to develop an appreciation of other times and places, but also because they are interesting in themselves. History develops both the imagination and the understanding of people and communities, while a study of recent history is essential for an understanding of the present, just as an understanding of the present is necessary to understand the past.

1. GENERAL AIMS

Arising from the conception of History, the course of study offered in Standard 8 in South African and modern World History has been developed to achieve, inter alia, the following general aims:

- 1.1 to contribute to the personal development of pupils;
- 1.2 to contribute to the development of a sense of citizenship;
- 1.3 to contribute to the development of positive attitudes and values;
- 1.4 to contribute to an understanding and appreciation of their heritage and that of other peoples and cultures;
- 1.5 to contribute to their understanding of the unique nature of individuals and events;
- 1.6 to contribute to their understanding of History as an academic discipline and the intellectual skills and perspectives which such a study involves.

2. SPECIFIC AIMS ARE

- 2.1 to give pupils a sense of such characteristics of historical knowledge as: its time dimension; the importance of placing events in their historical context; the concepts, terminology, interpretation and perspectives of historical knowledge; the changing state of historical knowledge and the contributions made by related disciplines to historical knowledge;
- 2.2 to give pupils an understanding and appreciation of such historical skills as the ability to locate evidence and to organise, classify and interpret this evidence in a logical way and to communicate historical ideas;
- 2.3 to give pupils a sense of the positive attitudes and values which arise from a study of the past and of the formative value of History through the development of a sense of the past and an appreciation of the complexity of the human forces which have shaped our past.

B. GENERAL REMARKS ON SYLLABUS

- 1. The aims of History teaching can only be realised if the subject matter is presented to the pupil at the appropriate level.

2. The content and setting of the syllabus is such that pupils will develop a broad understanding and general knowledge.
3. The syllabus will also ensure that pupils will gain a detailed knowledge and understanding of selected events and movements influencing the history of South Africa and the rest of the World.
4. The syllabus is designed to integrate the teaching of content, skills and attitudes.
5. Because skills and attitudes are less concrete aims, they require more conscious and systematic consideration from the teacher to avoid and approach based purely on content.
6. Attitudes and values cannot be tested. The aim should be to contribute to the growth and maturing of the pupils.
7. Each year the syllabus should be taught in such a way that there is harmony between the learning process (the "how") and the learning product (the "what").
8. The figures in brackets indicate the number of periods to be allocated to each section.

C. EXPOSITION OF SYLLABUS CONTENT *

SECTION A: GENERAL HISTORY

THE DEVELOPMENT OF NATIONALISM, LIBERALISM AND SOCIALISM IN EUROPE 1789 TO 1850

1. THE POLITICAL REVOLUTION: THE DEVELOPMENT OF LIBERALISM AND NATIONALISM
 - 1.1 The Revolution in FRANCE, 1789 to 1795
 - 1.1.1 The cause of the French Revolution
 - 1.1.1.1 The political, economic, social and religious factors which led to the French Revolution (12)
 - 1.1.1.2 The contribution of
 - 1.1.1.2.1 Montesquieu (1)
 - 1.1.1.2.2 Voltaire (1)
 - 1.1.1.2.3 Rousseau (1)
 - 1.1.2 The course of the French Revolution
 - * The meeting of the States-General, the fall of the Bastille and the march to Versailles (3)
 - * The work of the National Assembly, the fall of the monarchy, France and the Revolutionary Wars against Austria and Prussia (7)
 - * The National Convention, the Reign of Terror and the Directorate (3)
 - 1.1.3 The results of the French Revolution (1)
 - 1.2 NAPOLEON BONAPARTE
 - 1.2.1 His rise to power (4)

1.2.2	Napoleon Bonaparte's reorganisation of France	
1.2.2.1	Political	(2)
1.2.2.2	Financial and economic	(3)
1.2.2.3	Religious	(1)
1.2.2.4	Judicial	(1)
1.2.2.5	Educational	(1)
1.2.2.6	Social	
1.2.2.7	Military	(1)
1.2.3	The spread of Napoleonic and revolutionary ideas in Europe up to 1815	
1.2.3.1	Italy	(2)
1.2.3.2	Germany	(2)
1.2.3.3	Poland	(1)
1.2.3.4	Egypt	(1)
1.3	THE IMMEDIATE REACTION AGAINST REVOLUTIONARY IDEAS IN EUROPE	
1.3.1	The Congress of Vienna, 1815	
1.3.1.1	Aims	(1)
1.3.1.2	Principles followed by the Congress	(4)
1.3.1.3	Decisions	(1)
1.3.1.4	Criticism of the work of the Congress of Vienna	(1)
1.3.1.5	Results of the Congress of Vienna	(1)
1.3.2	The Congressional System, 1815 to 1825	
1.3.2.1	Fourfold Alliance	
1.3.2.2	The Holy Alliance	(1)
1.3.2.3	The congresses	
1.3.2.3.1	Aix-la-Chapelle	(1)
1.3.2.3.2	Troppau	(1)
1.3.2.3.3	Laibach	(1)
1.3.2.3.4	Verona	(1)
1.3.3	National and liberal revolts	
1.3.3.1	The national revolt in Greece	(1)
1.3.3.2	The liberal revolts in France, 1830 and 1848	(1)
2.	ECONOMIC REVOLUTION: THE DEVELOPMENT OF INDUSTRIALISM, CAPITALISM AND SOCIALISM, 1789 TO 1850	
2.1	INDUSTRIALISATION AND URBANISATION IN BRITAIN AND EUROPE	

2.1.1	The Industrial Revolution	
2.1.1.1	Definition and a brief description of the Industrial Revolution	(1)
2.1.1.2	Reasons why the Industrial Revolution started in Britain	(1)
2.1.1.3	The influence of the Industrial Revolution on Europe	(1)
2.1.2	The urbanisation in Britain and Europe	
2.1.2.1	The improved economy	(1)
2.1.2.2	Increased opportunities for employment	(1)
2.2	THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES OF INDUSTRIALISATION	
2.2.1	Economic consequences	(2)
2.2.2	Social consequences	(2)
2.5	THE GROWTH OF SOCIALIST THOUGHT IN EUROPE	
2.3.1	The growth of a new school of thought resulting from the French Revolution	
2.3.1.1	Nationalism	
2.3.1.2	Liberalism	
2.3.1.3	Democracy	(1)
2.3.2	The growth of new ideas as a result of the Industrial Revolution	
2.3.2.1	The growth of modern democracy in Britain	(3)
2.3.2.2	Materialism	(1)
2.3.2.3	Socialism	(1)
2.3.3	The consequences of the new ideas on Europe until 1850	(2)

SECTION B: SOUTH AFRICAN HISTORY

1.	THE RESHAPING OF SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIETY, 1820 - 1850	
1.1	MFECANE (DIFAQANE)	
	Brief revision under the headings	
1.1.1	Causes of the Mfecane (Difaqane)	(2)
1.1.2	Results of the Mfecane Difaqane	(1)
1.2	THE GREAT TREK	
	Brief revision under the headings	
1.2.1	Causes of the Great Trek	(2)
1.2.2	Results of the Great Trek	(1)

2.	BRITISH IMPERIAL INTERVENTION AND REACTIONS TO IT	
2.1	BRITISH REACTIONS OF THE GREAT TREK	
2.1.1	Problems created by emigration to the interior	
2.1.1.1	Problems	(1)
2.1.1.2	Napier's proclamations	(1)
2.1.2	The Treaty States system	(1)
2.1.3	The establishment and annexation of the Republic of Natalia	
2.1.3.1	The establishment of the Republic of Natalia	(1)
2.1.3.2	The constitution of the Republic	(1)
2.1.3.3	Napier's military occupation of Natal in 1836	(1)
2.1.3.4	The annexation of Natal	
2.1.3.4.1	Factors which led to the annexation	(1)
2.1.3.4.2	The annexation	(1)
2.1.3.4.3	Results of the annexation	(1)
2.1.4	The Sand River and Bloemfontein Conventions; the British convention policy	
2.1.4.1	Factors which led to the Sand River Convention	
2.1.4.1.1	The Battle of Boomplaats, 1848	(1)
2.1.4.1.2	The Basutos and the Orange Free State	(1)
2.1.4.1.3	The Xhosas and the Cape Colony	(1)
2.1.4.1.4	The role played by Pretorius	(1)
2.1.4.2	The Sand River Convention	(1)
2.1.4.3	The significance of the convention	(1)
2.1.4.4	Factors which led to the Bloemfontein Convention	(1)
2.1.4.5	The Bloemfontein convention	(1)
2.1.4.6	The British conventions policy	(1)
2.1.4.7	The significance of the convention	(1)
2.2	BRITAIN AND TRANSORANGIA	
2.2.1	Grey's federation attempts	
2.2.1.1	Motives	(1)
2.2.1.2	His plan of action	(1)
2.2.1.3	The failure of Grey's federation attempt	(1)
2.2.2	The annexation of Basutoland	
2.2.2.1	The rise of the Basuto nation	(2)

2.2.2.2	Geographical-political factors	(1)
2.2.2.3	OFS Republic and the Basuto	(1)
2.2.2.4	President Hoffman and Mosjwesjwe (Mosheg)	(1)
2.2.2.5	The Smithfield agreement	(1)
2.2.2.6	The First Basuto War, 1858	(1)
2.2.2.7	The First Treaty of Aliwal North	(1)
2.2.2.8	M.W. Pretorius fails to find a solution	(1)
2.2.2.9	Wodehouse and the Basuto	(1)
2.2.2.10	The Second Basuto War, 1865	(1)
2.2.2.11	The Treaty of Thaba Basigo	(1)
2.2.2.12	The Third Basuto War, 1867 - 68	(1)
2.2.2.13	The British annexation of Basutoland	(1)
2.2.2.14	The consequences of the annexation	
2.2.2.14.1	The Second Treaty of Aliwal North	(1)
2.2.2.14.2	Basutoland becomes a British protectorate	(1)
2.3	BRITAIN AND THE DIAMOND FIELD DISPUTE	
2.3.1	The claimants and diamond fields	(2)
2.3.2	The Keate Award, the annexation of Griqualand West and the findings of the Land Court of 1876	(2)
2.3.2.1	The Keate Award	(1)
2.3.2.2	The annexation of Griqualand West	(1)
2.3.2.3	The findings of the Land Court of 1876	(1)
2.3.3	Political results of the discovery of diamonds	(1)
2.4	CARNARVON'S FEDERATION POLICY AND ITS AFTERMATH TO 1884	
2.4.1	Earlier attempts at federation	(1)
2.4.2	Reasons for Carnarvon's scheme	(1)
2.4.3	Carnarvon's attempts at federation	(1)
2.4.4	The annexation of Transvaal, 1877	(1)
2.4.5	The First Anglo-Boer War, 1880 - 1881	
2.4.5.1	The reasons for the war	(2)
2.4.5.2	The results of the war	(1)
2.4.5.2.1	Pretoria Convention, 1881	(1)
2.4.5.2.2	London Convention, 1884	(1)
2.4.6	The results of Carnarvon's federation scheme	(1)

3. THE INCORPORATION OF BLACK CHIEFTAINS

3.1 Xhosaland into the Cape Colony

3.1.1 British Kaffraria, 1866 (1)

3.1.2 Fingoland and Griqualand East, 1879 (1)

3.1.3 Galeskaland, Tembuland and Bomvanaland, 1885 (1)

3.1.4 Mount Ayliff, 1886 (1)

3.1.5 Pondoland, 1894 (1)

3.2 Zululand into Natal

3.2.1 Land occupied by the Voortrekkers (1)

3.2.2 British occupation of Natal (1)

3.2.3 Clashes between the British and the Zulus (1)

3.2.4 Annexation of Zululand in 1884 (1)

3.3 Chieftoms in the Transvaal

3.3.1 The Matabele ousted in 1837 (1)

3.3.2 Treaties signed by the chiefs and A.H. Potgieter (1)

3.3.3 The Republican Constitution of 1858 (1)

3.3.4 Potgieter's treaty with Sapuza (Sekwatie) (1)

3.3.5 The rise of the BaVenda (present Soutpansberg) during 1871 (1)

3.3.6 The Bapedi rising, 1876 (1)

3.3.7 The risings of 1894 and the subjection of the Bapedi and BaVenda in Northern Transvaal (1)

3.3.8 The Swaziland Conventions (1)

D. EVALUATION

1. Year Mark

The year mark totalling 100 marks must form part of the promotion mark. The year mark must be based on at least ten standard tests. The tests may take the form of assignments, one word answers on questions, multiple choice questions, paragraphs or essays. For each test 50 marks must be allocated and the year mark must be based on all the test results.

2. Examination

2.1 A two hour examination paper must be set.

2.2 The examination paper must be divided as follows:

PART 1

COMPULSORY

Short objective type questions covering sections A and B of the syllabus 40 marks

PART 2

Two out of at least three questions from Section A must be answered (2 x 40) 80 marks

PART 3

Two out of at least three questions from Section B must be answered (2 x 40) 80 marks

TOTAL

200 marks

2.3 Factual knowledge, understanding and insight must be tested in the examination paper.

3. PROMOTION MARK

The promotion mark must be compiled in the following way.

3.1 Year mark : 100 marks

3.2 Examination mark : 200 marks

300

Final promotion mark : 300 marks



REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE

ADMINISTRATION: HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY



SYLLABUS

FOR

HISTORY

STANDARD 9

Higher Grade and Standard Grade

Date of Implementation: JANUARY 1987

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE

ADMINISTRATION: HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY

SYLLABUS FOR

HISTORY

STANDARD 9
(HIGHER GRADE)

DATE OF IMPLEMENTATION: JANUARY 1987

IMPLEMENTED BY: DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

A. AIMS OF SYLLABUS

History is a systematic study of the past. It is a study based on evidence: a selection of facts and events that are arranged, interpreted and explained. Thus History, in addition to its content, is also a mode of enquiry, a way of investigating the past which requires the acquisition and use of skills. The events, communities and peoples of the past are studied in order to develop an appreciation of other times and places, but also because they are interesting in themselves. History develops both the imagination and the understanding of people and communities, while a study of recent history is essential for an understanding of the present, just as an understanding of the present is necessary to understand the past.

1. GENERAL AIMS

Arising from this conception of History, the course of study offered in Standards 8 to 10 in South African and modern World History has been developed to achieve, inter alia, the following general aims:

- 1.1 To contribute to the personal development of pupils.
- 1.2 To contribute to the development of a sense of citizenship.
- 1.3 To contribute to the development of positive attitudes and values.
- 1.4 To contribute to an understanding and appreciation of their heritage and that of other peoples and cultures.
- 1.5 To contribute to their understanding of the unique nature of individuals and events.
- 1.6 To contribute to their understanding of History as an academic discipline and the intellectual skills and perspectives which such a study involves.

2. SPECIFIC AIMS

- 2.1 To give pupils a sense of such characteristics of historical knowledge as: its time dimension; the importance of placing events in their historical context; the concepts and terminology and the interpretation and perspectives of historical knowledge; the changing state of historical knowledge and the contributions made by related disciplines to historical knowledge;
- 2.2 to give pupils an understanding and appreciation of such historical skills as the ability to locate evidence and to organise, classify and interpret this evidence in a logical way and to communicate historical ideas;

- 2.3 to give pupils a sense of the positive attitudes and values which arise from a study of the past and of the formative value of History through the development of a sense of the past and an appreciation of the complexity of the human forces which have shaped our past.

B. GENERAL REMARKS ON SYLLABUS

1. The aims of History teaching can only be realised if the subject matter is presented to the pupil at the appropriate level. In addition to differentiated syllabus content for the Higher and Standard Grades, differentiation should also be achieved through methods of teaching, assessment and evaluation.
2. The content and setting of the syllabus is such that pupils will develop a broad understanding and general knowledge.
3. The syllabus will also ensure that pupils will gain a detailed knowledge and understanding of selected events and movements influencing the history of South Africa and the rest of the world.
4. The syllabus is designed to integrate the teaching of content, skills and attitudes.
5. Because skills and attitudes are less concrete aims they require more conscious and systematic consideration from the teacher to avoid an approach based purely on content.
6. Attitudes and values cannot be tested. The aim should be to contribute to the growth and maturing of the pupils.
7. Each year's syllabus should be taught in such a way that there is harmony between the learning process (the "how") and the learning product (the "what").

C. EXPOSITION OF SYLLABUS CONTENT

SECTION A: GENERAL HISTORY

EUROPEAN NATIONAL STATES AND THE EMERGENCE OF NEW POWERS

1. NATIONAL STATES IN CENTRAL EUROPE

- 1.1 The unification of Germany as a case study.

2. CIRCUMSTANCES AND EVENTS SINCE 1871 WHICH LED TO THE FIRST WORLD WAR

- 2.1 European and imperial rivalries affecting the relations of France, Germany and Britain.
- 2.2 Rivalry between Austro-Hungary and Russia with reference to the Balkans.
- 2.3 The collapse of the old empires (Germany, Austro-Hungary, Turkey) as a consequence of the war.

3. THE PEACE CONFERENCE IN PARIS AND THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

- 3.1 The Treaty of Versailles.
 - 3.1.1 Standpoints of the victors.
 - 3.1.2 Terms of the Treaty of Versailles.
 - 3.1.3 The founding and aims of the League of Nations.
 - 3.1.4 Implementing the peace settlement: Germany, 1919 to 1933 (in broad outline only).

4. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

- 4.1 Isolation policy.
- 4.2 The problem of slavery.
- 4.3 The Civil War.
- 4.4 Immigration and westward expansion.

SECTION B: SOUTH AFRICAN HISTORY

1. THE DISCOVERY OF DIAMONDS AND GOLD AND ITS ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL EFFECTS UNTIL 1910

Emphasis must be placed on the discoveries and their aftermath: transport, customs duties, industries, markets, labour and urbanisation.

2. BRITISH IMPERIALISM, AFRIKANER REPUBLICANISM, AND THE INCORPORATION OF INDEPENDENT CHIEFDOMS

- 2.1 Conflicting ideals of Kruger and Rhodes, 1882 - 1895.

- 2.2 The incorporation of the independent chiefdoms from 1884.
- 2.3 The "Uitlander" question from 1886.
- 2.4 The conflict between Milner and Kruger.
- 2.5 The political and constitutional implications of the Anglo-Boer War as manifested in the Peace of Vereeniging. (Details of the war are not required.)

3. THE RECONSTRUCTION AND UNIFICATION OF SOUTH AFRICA, 1902 TO 1910

- 3.1 Milnerism.
- 3.2 Political and economic revival in the colonies.
- 3.3 Factors which led to unification.
- 3.4 Activities and problems of the National Convention and the reactions thereto.
- 3.5 The constitution of the Union of South Africa (schematically only).

D. EVALUATION

1. INTRODUCTION

Only the standard 9 syllabus may be taught and examined.

2. YEAR MARK

- 2.1 A year mark in History must be obtained by setting at least eight class tests on every section. The final mark must then be converted to a mark out of 100.
- 2.2 Every test must have a mark allocation of at least 50 marks.
- 2.3 The test questions may consist of:
 - 2.3.1 essay-type questions of a general nature which focus the attention on important issues, but which may be divided into a limited number of sub-sections;
 - 2.3.2 non-essay type questions which may include the following: short paragraphs; completion or interpretation of maps; multiple choice questions; discussions on and/or interpretation of pictures, cartoons, diagrams, etc.; short questions requiring knowledge of important facts or the ability to interpret, etc.

3. EXAMINATION

- 3.1 A formal examination consisting of two papers of two hours each will be set.
- 3.2 First paper: General History.
Second paper: South African History.
- 3.3 In both cases the mark allocation will be equal.
- 3.4 In the examination each paper will consist of:
- 3.4.1 two essay type questions of a general nature which focus the attention on important issues, but which may be divided into a limited number of sub-sections;
- 3.4.2 the value of the essay questions will be 110 marks;
- 3.4.3 one set of non-essay type questions with a 60 marks value;
- 3.4.4 the non-essay type questions may include the following: short paragraphs; completion of paragraphs; contextual questions; completion or interpretation of maps; multiple choice questions; discussions on and/or interpretation of pictures, cartoons, diagrams, etc.; short questions requiring knowledge of important facts or the ability to interpret, etc.;
- 3.4.5 total mark allocation for each paper is 150 marks.
- 3.5 The final examination mark will consist of the total marks achieved in the first and second paper.

4. PROMOTION MARK.

Year Mark	:	100 marks
First and second paper	:	<u>300</u> marks
		<u>400</u> marks

<u>Final promotion mark</u>	:	<u>400</u> marks.
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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE

ADMINISTRATION: HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY

SYLLABUS FOR

HISTORY

STANDARD 9
(STANDARD GRADE)

DATE OF IMPLEMENTATION: JANUARY 1987

IMPLEMENTED BY: DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

A. AIMS OF SYLLABUS

History is a systematic study of the past. It is a study based on evidence: a selection of facts and events that are arranged, interpreted and explained. Thus History, in addition to its content, is also a mode of enquiry, a way of investigating the past which requires the acquisition and use of skills. The events, communities and peoples of the past are studied in order to develop an appreciation of other times and places, but also because they are interesting in themselves. History develops both the imagination and the understanding of people and communities, while a study of recent history is essential for an understanding of the present, just as an understanding of the present is necessary to understand the past.

1. GENERAL AIMS

Arising from the conception of History, the course of study offered in Standards 8 to 10 in South African and modern World History has been developed to achieve, inter alia, the following general aims:

- 1.1 To contribute to the personal development of pupils.
- 1.2 To contribute to the development of a sense of citizenship.
- 1.3 To contribute to the development of positive attitudes and values.
- 1.4 To contribute to an understanding and appreciation of their heritage and that of other peoples and cultures.
- 1.5 To contribute to their understanding of the unique nature of individuals and events.
- 1.6 To contribute to their understanding of History as an academic discipline and the intellectual skills and perspectives which such a study involves.

2. SPECIFIC AIMS

- 2.1 to give pupils a sense of such characteristics of historical knowledge: its time dimension; the importance of placing events in their historical context; the concepts and terminology and the interpretation and perspectives of historical knowledge; the changing state of historical knowledge and the contributions made by related disciplines to historical knowledge;
- 2.2 to give pupils an understanding and appreciation of such historical skills as the ability to locate evidence and to organise, classify and interpret this evidence in a logical way and to communicate historical ideas;

- 2.3 to give pupils a sense of the positive attitudes and values which arise from a study of the past and of the formative value of History through the development of a sense of the past and an appreciation of the complexity of the human forces which have shaped our past.

B. GENERAL REMARKS ON SYLLABUS

1. The aims of History teaching can only be realised if the subject matter is presented to the pupil at the appropriate level. In addition to differentiated syllabus content for the Higher and Standard Grades, differentiation should also be achieved through methods of teaching, assessment and evaluation.
2. The content and setting of the syllabus is such that pupils will develop a broad understanding and general knowledge.
3. The syllabus will also ensure that pupils will gain a detailed knowledge and understanding of selected events and movements influencing the history of South Africa and the rest of the world.
4. The syllabus is designed to integrate the teaching of content, skills and attitudes.
5. Because skills and attitudes are less concrete aims they require more conscious and systematic consideration from the teacher to avoid an approach based purely on content.
6. Attitudes and values cannot be tested. The aim should be to contribute to the growth and maturing of the pupils.
7. Each year's syllabus should be taught in such a way that there is harmony between the learning process (the "how") and the learning product (the "what").

C. EXPOSITION OF SYLLABUS CONTENT

SECTION A: GENERAL HISTORY

EUROPEAN NATIONAL STATES AND THE EMERGENCE OF NEW POWERS

1. NATIONAL STATES IN CENTRAL EUROPE

- 1.1 The unification of Germany as a case study.

2. CIRCUMSTANCES AND EVENTS SINCE 1871 WHICH LED TO THE FIRST WORLD WAR

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2.2 Rivalry between Austro-Hungary and Russia with reference to the Balkans.

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3. THE PEACE CONFERENCE IN PARIS AND THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

3.1 The Treaty of Versailles.

3.1.1 Standpoints of the victors.

3.1.2 Terms of the Treaty of Versailles.

3.1.3 The founding and aims of the League of Nations.

3.1.4 Implementing the peace settlement: Germany, 1919 to 1933 (in broad outline only).

4. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

4.1 Isolation policy.

4.2 The problem of slavery.

4.3 The Civil War.

4.4 Immigration and westward expansion.

SECTION B: SOUTH AFRICAN HISTORY

1. THE DISCOVERY OF DIAMONDS AND GOLD AND ITS ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL EFFECTS UNTIL 1910

Emphasis must be placed on the discoveries and their aftermath: transport, customs duties, industries, markets, labour and urbanisation.

2. BRITISH IMPERIALISM, AFRIKANER REPUBLICANISM AND THE INCORPORATION OF INDEPENDENT CHIEFDOMS

2.1 Conflicting ideals of Kruger and Rhodes, 1882 - 1895.

- 2.2 The incorporation of the independent chiefdoms from 1884.
- 2.3 The "Uitlander" question from 1886.
- 2.4 The conflict between Milner and Kruger.
- 2.5 The political and constitutional implications of the Anglo-Boer War as manifested in the Peace of Vereeniging. (Details of the war are not required.)

3. THE RECONSTRUCTION AND UNIFICATION OF SOUTH AFRICA, 1902 TO 1910

- 3.1 Milnerism.
- 3.2 Political and economic revival in the colonies.
- 3.3 Factors which led to unification.
- 3.4 Activities and problems of the National Convention and the reactions thereto.
- 3.5 The constitution of the Union of South Africa (schematically only).

D. EVALUATION

1. INTRODUCTION

Only the standard 9 syllabus may be taught and examined.

2. YEAR MARK

- 2.1 A year mark in History must be obtained by setting at least eight class tests on every section. The final mark must then be converted to a mark out of 100.
- 2.2 Every test must have a mark allocation of at least 50 marks.
- 2.3 The test questions may consist of:
 - 2.3.1 essay-type questions of a general nature which focus the attention on important issues, but which may be divided into a limited number of sub-sections;
 - 2.3.2 non-essay type questions which may include the following: short paragraphs; completion or interpretation of maps; multiple choice questions; discussions on and/or interpretation of pictures, cartoons, diagrams, etc.; short questions requiring knowledge of important facts or the ability to interpret, etc.

3. EXAMINATION

- 3.1 A formal examination consisting of two papers of two hours each will be set.
- 3.2 First paper: General History.
Second paper: South African History.
- 3.3 In both cases the mark allocation will equal.
- 3.4 In the examination each paper will consist of:
- 3.4.1 two essay type questions of a general nature which focus the attention on important issues, but which may be divided into a limited number of sub-sections;
- 3.4.2 the value of the essay questions will be 140 marks;
- 3.4.3 one set on non-essay type questions with a 60 marks value;
- 3.4.4 the non-essay type questions may include the following: short paragraphs; completion of paragraphs; contextual questions; completion or interpretation of maps; multiple choice questions; discussions on and/or interpretation of pictures, cartoons, diagrams, etc.: short questions requiring knowledge of important facts or the ability to interpret, etc.
- 3.4.5 total mark allocation for each paper is 200 marks.
- 3.5 The final examination mark will consist of the total marks achieved in the first and second paper.

4. PROMOTION MARK

Year Mark	: 100 marks
First and second paper	: <u>400</u> marks
	<u>500</u> marks
<u>Final promotion mark</u>	: <u>500</u> marks.



REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
ADMINISTRATION: HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY

NATIONAL EXAMINATIONS

SYLLABUS

FOR

HISTORY

STANDARD 10
(STANDARD GRADE)

Code: 203/0/2/1/88

Date of implementation: January 1988
Implemented by: Department of Education and Training

DEPARTEMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

SYLLABUS

FOR

HISTORY

STANDARD GRADE

STANDARD 10

DATE OF IMPLEMENTATION: JANUARY 1988

DEPARTEMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

SYLLABUS

FOR

HISTORY

STANDARD GRADE

STANDARD 10

DATE OF IMPLEMENTATION: JANUARY 1988

SYLLABUS FOR HISTORY STANDARD 10 STANDARD GRADE 1988

A. AIMS OF SYLLABUS

1. INTRODUCTION

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2. GENERAL AIMS

Arising from this conception of History, the course of study offered in Standards 8 to 10 in South African and modern World History has been developed to achieve, inter alia, the following general aims:

- 2.1 To contribute to the personal development of pupils;
- 2.2 To contribute to the development of a sense of citizenship;
- 2.3 To contribute to the development of positive attitudes and values;
- 2.4 To contribute to an understanding and appreciation of their heritage and that of other peoples and cultures;
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3. SPECIFIC AIMS

- 3.1 To give pupils a sense of such characteristics of historical knowledge as: its time dimension; the importance of placing events in their historical context; the concepts and terminology and the interpretation and perspectives of historical knowledge; the changing state of historical knowledge and the contributions made by related disciplines to historical knowledge;
- 3.2 To give pupils an understanding and appreciation of such historical skills as the ability to locate evidence and to organise, classify and interpret this evidence in a logical way and to communicate historical ideas;

- 3.3 To give pupils a sense of the positive attitudes and values which arise from a study of the past and of the formative value of History through the development of a sense of the past and an appreciation of the complexity of the human forces which have shaped our past.

B. GENERAL REMARKS ON THE SYLLABUS

1. The aims of History teaching can only be realised if the subject matter is presented to the pupil at the appropriate level. In addition to differentiated syllabus content for the Higher and Standard Grades, differentiation should also be achieved through methods of teaching, assessment and evaluation.
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5. Because skills and attitudes are less concrete aims they require more conscious and systematic consideration from the teacher to avoid an approach based purely on content.
6. Attitudes and values cannot be tested. The aim should be to contribute to the growth and maturing of the pupils.
7. Each year's syllabus should be taught in such a way that there is harmony between the learning process (the "how") and the learning product (the "what").

C. SYLLABUS CONTENT

SECTION A : GENERAL HISTORY

THE WORLD IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

1. THE RISE OF THE SUPERPOWERS, 1917 TO 1939
 - 1.1 The rise of Soviet Russia
 - 1.1.1 Conditions in Russia before 1917 (by way of introduction)
 - 1.1.2 The February and October revolutions
 - 1.1.3 Lenin's political and economic policies
 - 1.1.4 Economic development and planning (the Five-Year Plans)

- 1.1.5 Stalin's political terror
- 1.2 The rise of the United States of America
 - 1.2.1 Entry into the First World War
 - 1.2.2 Isolation
 - 1.2.3 Industrial development, depression and the New Deal
 - 1.2.4 Foreign policy
- 2. THE SECOND WORLD WAR
 - 2.1 The decline of democracy in Europe (by way of introduction)
 - 2.2 The rise of totalitarianism in Germany, Japan and Italy
 - 2.3 International crises and international relations:
German foreign policy and the reactions of Britain, France,
the United States of America and Russia, 1933 to 1939
 - 2.4 The outbreak of war
 - 2.5 The entry of Japan and the United States of America into the
war
 - 2.6 The aftermath of the war: conquests and alliances and their
influence on international relations
- 3. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND EVENTS, 1945 TO 1970
 - 3.1 The United Nations Organisation
 - 3.1.1 Aims
 - 3.1.2 Composition: General Assembly, Security Council,
International Court of Justice and the Secretariat
 - 3.1.3 The shortcomings, successes and failures of the United Nations
Organisation (in broad outline only)
 - 3.1.4 The United Nations Organisation and the Cold War: the conflict
of ideologies and power blocks (in broad outline only)
 - 3.2 Africa since the Second World War
 - 3.2.1 Movements for independence in Africa and the rise of national-
ism, with pre-1945 protest movements by way of introduction
 - 3.2.2 Common problems of the independent African states (details of
individual states are not required)
 - 3.2.3 The Organisation of African Unity and its activities
 - 3.2.4 The involvement of the world powers in Africa

SECTION B: SOUTH AFRICAN HISTORY

THE POLITICAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTH AFRICA, 1910 TO 1970

1. SOUTH AFRICA, 1910 TO 1924
 - 1.1 The main features of South African Society in 1910
 - 1.2 The first general election; political parties and their policies; the Botha-Hertzog crisis; the foundation of the National Party
 - 1.3 The effects of participation in the First World War; the Rebellion and the occupation of South West Africa; the Peace of Versailles; the self-determination issue and the deputations for independence; the assumption of the mandate over South West Africa
 - 1.4 The amalgamation of the South African Party and the Unionists; the Labour Party; the political implications of the 1922 strike on the Witwatersrand; the growth of extra-parliamentary activity
 - 1.5 The fall of the Smuts government, 1924
2. SOUTH AFRICA, 1924 TO 1948
 - 2.1 Co-operation between the National Party and the Labour Party; the recognition of Afrikaans; the flag question; recognition of South Africa's sovereign independence; the 1926 Imperial Conference and the Balfour Declaration; independent Department of External Affairs; Statute of Westminster; Status and Seal Acts
 - 2.2 Factors and events which led to coalition and fusion of parties; foundation of the United Party; grouping of other parties; segregation; major legislation; forms of extra-parliamentary activity; the issue of neutrality and the decision to participate in the Second World War
 - 2.3 Participation and role in the Second World War; political strife in opposition ranks; South Africa a member of the United Nations Organisation and the South West African question
 - 2.4 Post-war internal problems: economic growth and industrialisation; the urbanisation of the population; segregation under strain; labour unrest and discontent; party politics during and after the war; forms of extra-parliamentary activity
 - 2.5 The election of 1948 and the fall of the Smuts government

D. EVALUATION

1. CONTENTS

Only the Standard 10 syllabus should be taught and examined.

2. YEAR MARK

2.1 A year mark is obtained from marks scored in class tests and the September examination.

2.2 At least four tests should be set on each section during the year.

2.3 At least 50 marks should be allocated for each test.

2.4 The total marks scored in the tests by a pupil are added together and converted to a percentage.

2.5 The converted test marks (maximum = 100) are added to the marks for the trial examination in September (maximum = 300) to obtain the total year mark (maximum = 400).

2.6 The total year mark is converted to a percentage (divided by 4).

2.7 The following types of questions may be set:

2.7.1 Essay questions of a general nature which deal with important issues and which may be divided into a limited number of subsections;

2.7.2 Non-essay questions which may include the following: short paragraphs; completion of paragraphs; contextual questions; completion and/or interpretation of maps; multiple choice questions; discussion and/or interpretation of pictures, cartoons, diagrams et cetera; short questions requiring knowledge of important facts or the ability to interpret, et cetera.

3. EXAMINATION

3.1 The formal examination will consist of two papers of two hours each:

First paper: General History

Second paper: South African History

The two papers will be equal in value

3.3 Each paper should consist of the following:

3.3.1 Two essay questions of a general nature on important issues, which may be divided into a limited number of subsections;

3.3.2 One set of non-essay questions consisting of the following:

Short paragraphs; completion of paragraphs; contextual questions; completion and/or interpretation of maps; multiple-choice questions; discussion and/or interpretation of

pictures, cartoons, diagrams, et cetera; short questions requiring knowledge of important facts or the ability to interpret, et cetera.

3.3.3 For the essay questions 100 marks are to be allocated, and for the non-essay questions 50 marks. The total for each paper is 150 marks.

3.4 The final examination mark at the end of the year will consist of the marks obtained in papers one and two (maximum = 300).

